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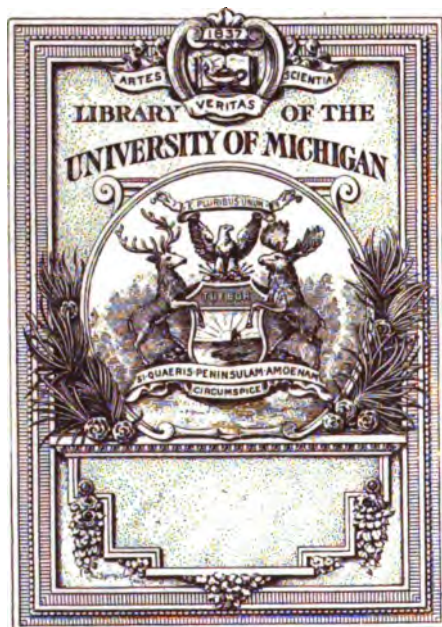
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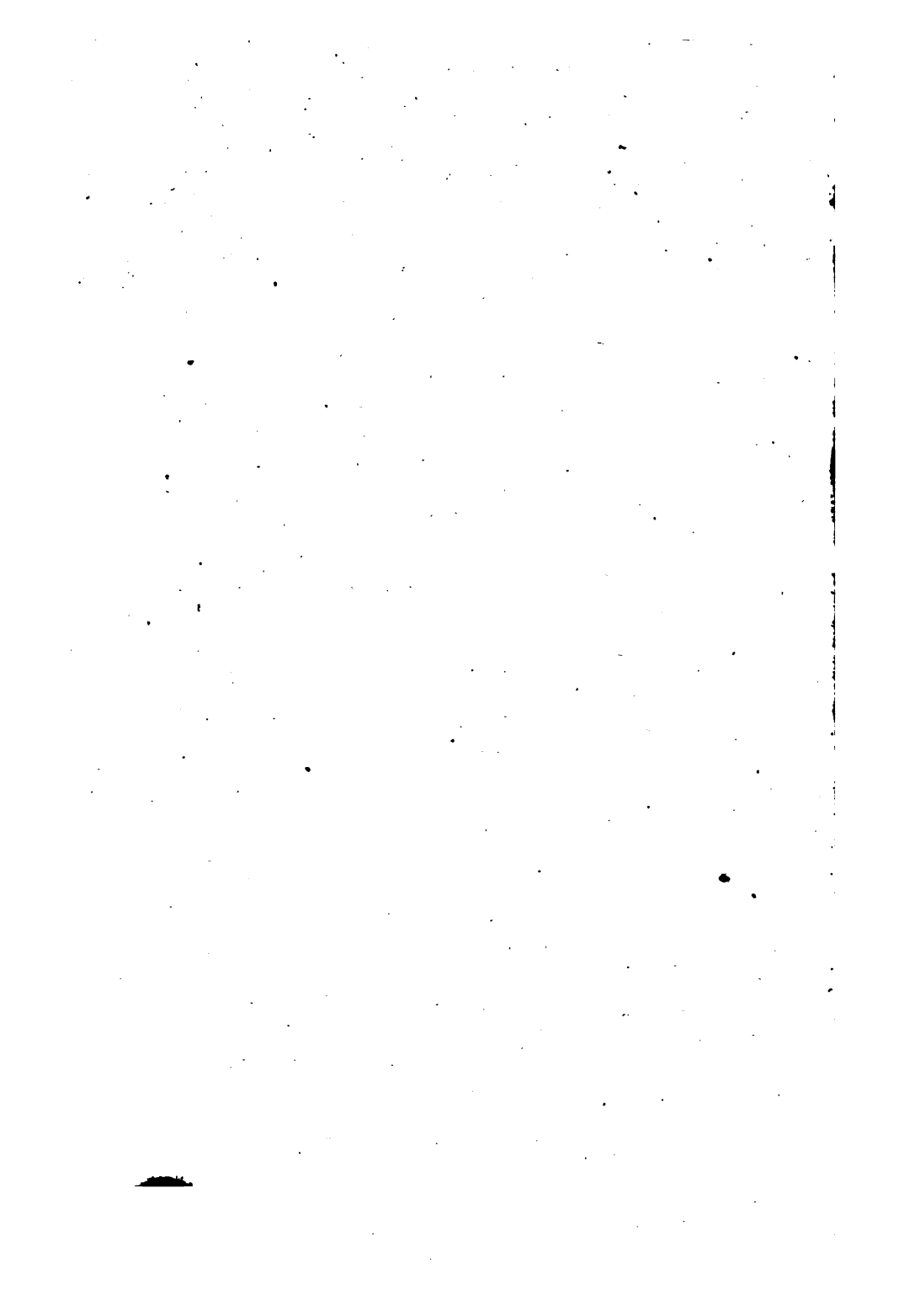
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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Issued Monthly
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JUNE—AUGUST 1907

Volume .47.



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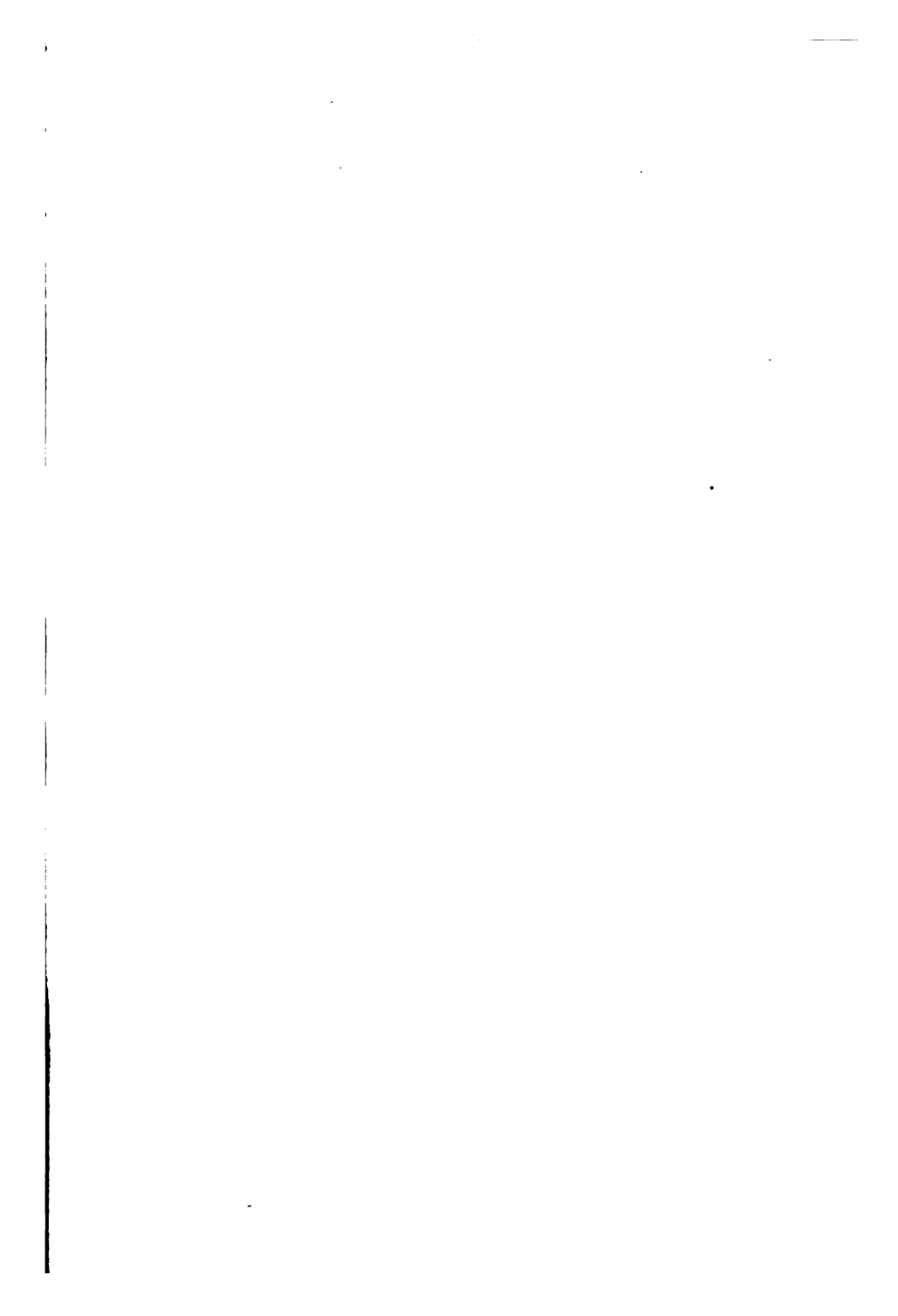
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Thirty Years' Progress in Municipal Architecture
Old City Hall, Chicago, on left. New County Building on right.
Courtesy of Holabird and Roche, Architects, Chicago.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 47.

JUNE, 1907.

No. I.



SINCE the collapse of the Palma government in Cuba and the practical re-occupation of the island by American forces the question of "the future" has presented difficult and serious aspects. The United States assumed the control of Cuban affairs with the explicit pledge to re-establish native self-government at the first practicable opportunity. Unfortunately many Americans have continued an agitation for a protectorate or even outright annexation, and in this they have been supported by powerful interests in the island. It is a fact that foreign investors and native planters, bankers and capitalists desire the indefinite continuance of American control, and view with apprehension the prospect of another attempt at government by native politicians.

On the other hand, the factions that overthrew the Palma administration have been restive and suspicious. They have questioned the good faith of the United States and demanded immediate fulfilment of the pledge of withdrawal. While peace and order have prevailed in the island, the dissatisfaction and agitation of the discontented elements have had bad effects on industry and on public affairs.

It was necessary to put a stop to the intrigues of the two sets of extremists by announcing a fairly definite program of action. Secretary Taft visited Cuba in April and made a personal and patient investigation of the whole situation, receiving all sorts of delegations, listening to grievances and suggestions and considering probable consequences of the courses open to the United States. The outcome of

his consultations and inquiries is an official declaration of policy which should be satisfactory to all fair-minded Cubans and reassuring to the foreign investors.

The plan of action is as follows :

First of all a census will be taken to determine the number of qualified voters under the revised electoral system and to insure honest registration. This enumeration will require some four or five months.

After a short interval for preparations and campaigning, municipal and provincial elections will be held. As most of the present officials hold their places by executive appointment—an outgrowth of the political revolt—these elections will constitute a long step toward popular and honest government.

Then, after another interval (the length of which will be determined by the conditions then existing) national elections will be held, and a president, vice-president and a congress will be chosen.

To the candidates successful at such elections the government of Cuba will be turned over. But American troops will remain in the island for a few months longer to give the native government a chance to establish itself firmly and to prevent disorder on the part of the defeated factions.

This program has been cordially approved by the press of this country and by most of the Cuban leaders. It is conservative and cautious, but it is honorable and safe. Slow progress is best for Cuba herself, for another collapse and another occupation of the island would force on the United States a protectorate and with eventual annexation.



Municipal Tendencies in America

In recent years our cities have emancipated themselves from the worst evils of spoils, bossism and irrelevant partisanship. The merit system has gained much ground, and independent voting has improved the personnel of the city

councils and the executive offices. Still, the problem of municipal government has by no means been solved, and thinkers like President Eliot of Harvard and Prof. Goldwin Smith still think that the weakest spot in the whole American system is the government of our cities.

The same writers, however, point hopefully to a new tendency in municipal politics, to the spread of what has been called "the Texas idea" (though it is much older and of another origin), the idea of government by commission.

In addition to Galveston and Houston, Memphis now has a government by a board or commission. A government of this kind dispenses with the traditional "division of powers," the checks and balances, which cities copied from state and national forms of government. It is government on "business principles," cities being treated by its theory as administrative entities merely, as great business corporations.

The philosophy of such a system was recently well set forth in *The Outlook*, which wrote:

The work of a so-called city government is not primarily governing; certainly not primarily political. It is the work of a corporation carrying on an immense business, either directly by its own agencies, or indirectly through private enterprises employed for the purpose. This business includes such functions as providing water, seeing that the citizens are properly furnished with lights, making provision to guard against fires, establishing and maintaining public parks for popular health and recreation, watching against the approach of contagious disease, opening and paving the streets and maintaining them in good order, and the like. This is not legislative work, it is administrative work. In this work of administration all the citizens of the city are equally interested. It is a work which can be done by a few men better than by many; and by men having equally at heart the interests of all the city better than by men chosen by localities to represent localities. In the organization of such an administrative body the example furnished by individual enterprises is the one to be followed rather than the example furnished by political organizations.

All Boards of Aldermen and Councilmen should be abolished; all idea of elaborate legislative functions to be per-

formed should be abandoned. A Board of Directors of the city should be elected, as there is elected a Board of Directors for a bank or a railway corporation. Possibly in the greatest cities, especially where there is a suburban population which is within the municipality, or where there are separate boroughs which separate ideals as in New York City there should be provision for their representation in the Board; but with this possible exception the Board should be elected by the city at large. It should be a small Board, so small that the best men of the city could see it to be worth while to serve in it. And to this Board the entire administration of the city's business should be intrusted, as the entire business of a railway is intrusted to its Board of Directors.

Many other thoughtful editors are expressing similar sentiments, and it is apparently safe to conclude that "government by commission" is a plan "with a future." The number of cities that already follow it is small, to be sure, but three or four states have passed enabling acts in favor of this system; that is, they allow any city of a certain class to establish government by commission at any time. Iowa and Kansas are among the states that have such general statutes. The Iowa law is very advanced and democratic.



Municipal Ownership in Chicago

There is an impression abroad that in the recent municipal election the voters of Chicago repudiated the principle of municipal ownership and reversed the verdict which they had deliberately rendered two years before, when Judge Edward F. Dunne was elected mayor on a platform of immediate acquisition and operation by the city of the street railways.

It is true that Mr. Dunne was defeated in the recent election owing largely to his position on the street railway question. But it is not true that his defeat was also a defeat for the policy of municipal ownership. The situation had undergone a radical change, and the issue was not, as in 1905, municipal versus private ownership of the street railways, but a settlement with the traction companies on

a basis of a temporary partnership with the city paving the way to municipal ownership at the option and convenience of the city, versus uncertain litigation, condemnation, proceedings against the companies and abominable transportation service during the period of litigation.

The companies had sustained a severe defeat in the courts in a suit involving their alleged franchise rights and had found themselves constrained to make large, almost unprecedented, concessions to the city. New ordinances had been negotiated which provided for operation of the lines by the companies under a revocable license or indeterminate grant, for a division of the net profits (the city's share being 55 per cent. of these), for full publicity, for municipal supervision of reconstruction and operation, for first-class service, and for the purchase by the city of the entire system at six months' notice for \$50,000,000 plus the cost of all improvements and extensions.

Mayor Dunne, who had favored a settlement on this basis, thought that in their final shape the ordinances did not sufficiently safeguard either the financial interests of the city or the reserved right of municipalization at the city's option. He accordingly advised rejection of the ordinances. But the people were assured by the press, by the Republican candidate, by the majority of the aldermen, by many independent and disinterested citizens that the ordinances were entirely compatible with such municipalization, that they actually paved the way to that policy and greatly simplified the process of bringing it about. Meantime, it was further claimed, the ordinances would give the people more in the way of compensation for the temporary privilege to operate, of good service, of public control, than any other city has succeeded in securing from its traction companies.

It is plain, therefore, that in voting to accept the "settlement" ordinances, the people of Chicago did not need to vote against municipal ownership. There is no evidence whatever that they intended to do so, or that the result had any such significance.

Since the election there has been a further change in the situation, and one that is unfavorable to the policy of municipal ownership. The Supreme Court of the state has declared invalid an act of the legislature which enabled cities to acquire street railways by means of certificates issued against the plant, assets and franchise value of the railways without creating bonded indebtedness against the municipalities. Chicago is not in a position—and is not likely to be in the near future—to issue bonds for the purchase of the traction system. The certificate plan was devised to meet this situation. The Supreme Court, however, has ruled against it, holding that it is an evasion of the Constitution and an indirect form of increasing municipal indebtedness beyond the limit legally fixed.

This decision, which the advocates of municipalization were not prepared for, is a serious blow to their movement. It is not, however, a fatal blow. Other ways to municipal ownership are still left open, and still others may be discovered and opened. But for the present Chicago must endeavor to extract from the traction ordinances all the good they are capable of yielding. Pending the removal of the difficulties to municipalization, the companies will doubtless be compelled to live up to their contract obligations and their pledges of honest dealing.



Shocking Corruption in San Francisco

All previous municipal scandals and exposures are apparently eclipsed by the recent revelations in San Francisco, which eastern newspapers describe as "the most corrupt city in the world." Certainly the charges that are pending against her mayor, her most notorious local "boss," many of her aldermen (or supervisors) and several "leading citizens" interested in great public utilities are amazing. The story as told in the press reports is one of systematic bribery and blackmail, of the sale of franchises and votes for cash, of

protection of vice and lawlessness by the government of the city for "tribute" regularly paid, and of political intrigue and corruption of the most audacious and amazing description.

It was the earthquake and great fire of last year that created the unusual opportunities for such brazen and defiant corruption. The city was destroyed and demoralized; men were too busy with pressing problems of daily existence and rehabilitation to pay much attention to public affairs. Greedy and venal legislators and officials thought it relatively safe to run amuck and demand bribes of those corporations that were in need of new franchises or extensions of franchises. Some of the corporations, competing with their rivals for such favors, bought votes of their own motion, without waiting for blackmailing proposals. Traction, telephone and other franchises were thus secured for "cash," and the conspirators apparently took but little trouble to avoid detection.

Thanks to the energy and independence of the prosecuting attorney and his associates, the various deals and transactions are to be ventilated in the courts. Many indictments have been returned, and many more are under consideration. An effort is to be made to convict and punish not only the dishonest and venal officials, but also the "leading citizens" who bribed these criminals.

Of course, during the pendency of these bribery and blackmail cases, involving Mayor Schmitz, "Boss" Abraham Ruef, the supervisors, and so on, it would be unfair to assume guilt in any particular case. But the evidence of crookedness is said to be overwhelming, and some convictions are doubtless certain of obtainment. The labor unions of San Francisco have repudiated and condemned the so-called "labor administration" of the city, and the upright citizens are determined that full light shall be thrown on the disgraceful conditions and the necessary cleaning of the municipal stables secured. Perhaps the disclosures may lead to more fundamental structural reforms in the government of the city.

An American Peace Congress

The first national peace and arbitration congress ever held was that which met in New York in the third week in April. The congress should really have been called international, for many distinguished foreigners were present as delegates and the discussion covered every phase of the subject and elicited expressions of opinion from every point of view, German, English, French, American, and so on. The attitude of labor to peace was one of the topics, and the woman's view of war received attention at one of the sessions. Spirited debates were caused by differences of opinion between the "idealists," who believe that universal peace and arbitration are possible and feasible today, if the governments of the world would but recognize that fact and cease raising imaginary difficulties or insincere questions of "national honor," and between the opportunists and the "practical men," who think it idle and even mischievous to ask too much and who would take one step at a time and refrain from attacks on traditions and popular sentiments. Some orators even apologized for conscription and militarism and huge armaments, while professing anxiety to promote the cause of conciliation and arbitration.

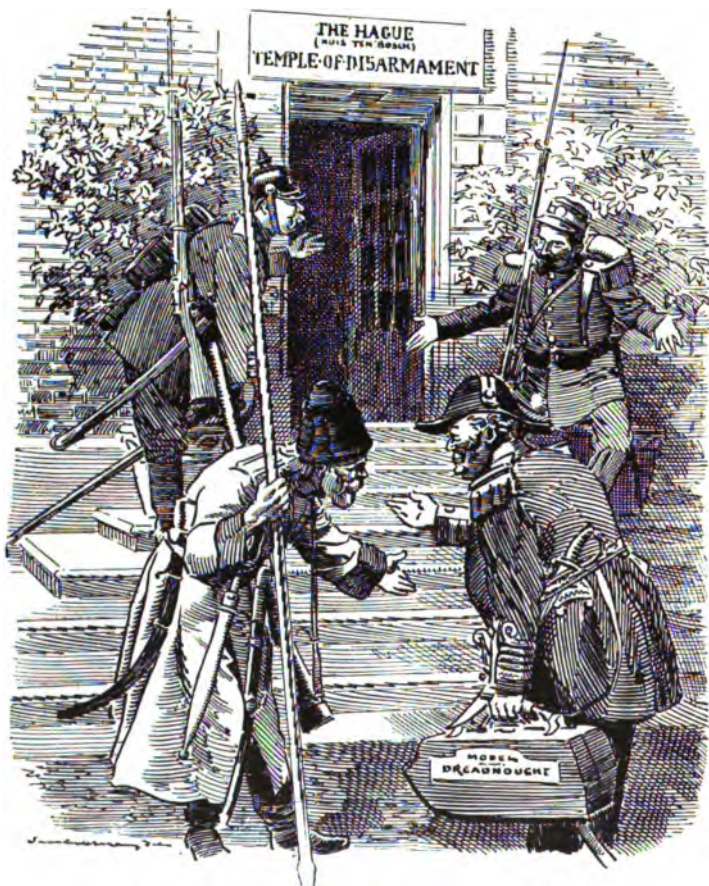
However, in the main the sessions were harmonious, and the resolutions which the congress adopted represented a compromise. They recommended, among other things, the opening of the Hague court to all the nations of the world, the discussion at the next Hague conference of the question of limitation of armaments and military budgets, protection of private property at sea during war when the property is not contraband, and, most important of all, the drafting of the general treaty for the arbitration of all international disputes that shall prove impossible of adjustment by diplomacy.

The last resolution seems radical, for it makes no exceptions in favor of disputes involving "national honor" or "vital interests," or "sovereignty,"—classes of disputes that



From photograph copyright 1907 by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

National Arbitration and Peace Congress, Monday Evening, April 15, at Carnegie Hall, New York City
Mr. Carnegie, the president, is seen shaking hands with Baron d'Estournelles De Constant (France).



The Tug of Peace
EVERYBODY (to everybody else), "AFTER YOU, SIR!"
—From *Punch*, London.

are usually excepted from arbitration treaties—but it is immediately qualified by a clause to the effect that as many classes of disputes should be embraced in an arbitration agreement as present conditions and sentiments permit.

It is not probable that much immediate and tangible good will result from the "private" peace congress—for the situation in Europe is not favorable to a great stride toward peace—but the moral and educational effects of the notable gathering have been widely felt and cannot fail to prove lasting. It was the consensus of opinion among the delegates and orators that in the future national and international peace congresses should be frequently held to promote and popularize the cause of international good will.



The Next Hague Conference

This month representatives of all the leading nations of the world, including South America, will meet once more in the quiet, beautiful little capital of Holland to discuss peace and war questions. The second Hague conference, like the first, has nominally been called by Russia, but actually it is due to the initiative of the United States.

Many questions were left open by the first conference, which was held in 1899, and since then new ones have arisen. There has been much diplomatic activity, journeying and correspondence as to the program of the conference—the topics that should be on it, and the topics that should be omitted. Not a little friction appears to have resulted from the attempt of England and the United States to include the question of armament limitation, the discussion of which even in the abstract is objectionable to Russia, Germany, and Austria. There is also objection to the Drago doctrine—a South American doctrine directed against the use of governmental forces to collect private debts by naval demonstration and seizures—but South America would be disappointed if this question were definitely excluded.

Highways and Byways

After considerable negotiation this plan was evolved—neither limitations of armaments nor the Drago doctrine is to be excluded, but certain powers reserve the right to refrain from participating in the discussion of any question that, in their judgment, can lead to no useful or practical action.

No resolution can pass the conference without a unanimous vote, and even the adoption of a resolution by the delegates does not bind the powers finally. Each government must ratify it subsequently in its own way.

The points proposed in the original Russian program for the second conference were:

Improvements in the provision of the present convention in regard to submission of disputes to arbitration and the international commission of inquiry.

Amendments to the laws and rules of war, including those relating to the opening of hostilities, surprises, interests of neutrals, etc.

The framing of a treaty in regard to maritime warfare for the purpose of mitigating its hardships and evils and affording non-contraband property better protection.

Ardent lovers of peace are not satisfied with this program and regret that several of the powers are so suspicious of proposals looking to armament limitations. Some have given utterance to pessimistic comment regarding the outlook and the utility of the coming conference. Even postponement has been suggested, though only by quasi-official journals. But the conference cannot fail entirely, and whatever it may neglect to do, the things it will accomplish will certainly be desirable and beneficial as far as they go. The conference will make for progress and righteousness to the extent of its influence and achievements, however modest these may be.

There is a peculiarly unfortunate misprint in the following paragraph which is said to have appeared in a provincial contemporary: "A steamer to be known as the *George Washington* has been ordered by the Hamburg-Amerika Company. It will be the biggest transatlantic liar afloat."—*Punch, London*.

Radicals and Democracy in Finland

In 1905, simultaneously with the granting by the Tzar of a constitution and a parliament to Russia, an imperial decree restored to the Duchy of Finland the autonomy she had lost under the reactionary regime and the violent process of "Russification." The decree authorized the Finland Diet to prepare a new constitution for the duchy. This was done. The new constitution abolished the old diet, which was based on class representation and caste interests, and provided for a unicameral diet elected by universal suffrage. Women were given the ballot on exactly the same terms as men, and they were also made eligible to public office.

The Tzar approved this advanced democratic constitution in spite of considerable bureaucratic and reactionary opposition, and it went into effect.

The first general elections under it were held late in March. They resulted in decided victories for the radical and socialist parties. The latter party secured eighty seats. There were many women candidates for the diet and nineteen were elected, nine of these being socialists.

Thus Finland is the first European country to enfranchise her women, and the first country in the world to give women seats in the national parliament.

Whether she will be permitted to exercise her rights without obstruction and interference from the imperial government is, unfortunately, considered rather doubtful. Already the reactionary press in Russia is warning the diet that any attempt at enacting "radical" and socialistic legislation will bring about its dissolution. Charges are made in the same quarters that Finland is contemplating secession and revolt, and secretly importing arms in preparation for an uprising. Leading Finns declare these charges to be utterly baseless and manifestly absurd. Why should Finland wish to secede now, they ask? What could she hope to gain, and why, with her autonomy recovered and so many great reforms achieved, should she be dissatisfied with

Russian sovereignty? Apparently the enemies of liberty in Russia are jealous of the liberties of Finland and desirous of overthrowing them. If reaction prevails in Russia, Finland's autonomy will be seriously endangered



Mr. Roosevelt and a Third Term

The campaign for the next national election may fairly be said to have opened. It was opened by Senator Foraker in Ohio, by several state legislatures, and by a number of great newspapers. Issues as well as candidates are energetically discussed, and the discussion has been specially stimulated by a semi-official statement from the White House in regard to the existence of a \$5,000,000 conspiracy to capture the next Republican presidential convention, secure control of the party machinery, and prevent the nomination of any "progressive," any man in sympathy with the Roosevelt policies and ideas.

The existence of such conspiracy has been denied, but whether one has been formally organized or not, certain it is that there is considerable evidence of anti-Roosevelt activity among railroad and corporation men and others who regard the President as a "radical" and a menace to industry and prosperity. Interviews, articles and speeches have been coming from various sources, the burden of which is that agitation unsettles business and undermines confidence, that we are in danger of a panic, and that conservatism in government has become an absolute necessity. To these have been added certain bitter and vehement attacks on Mr. Roosevelt.

Has this movement injured the President and affected his popularity? To obtain an answer to this question the New York *Herald* (Ind.) and the New York *Times* (Ind. Dem.) tested editorial, public and legislative sentiment in many of the states, east and west, and the replies disclosed an extraordinary unanimity of opinion in favor of the President. His popularity, all agreed, was greater than ever; his

strength was steadily growing instead of diminishing, and the people were determined to force another nomination on him. His explicit declaration, made on the night of his election in 1904, that under no circumstances would he be a candidate again for the presidency, is nowhere considered as conclusive, for his duty to serve the people, it is said, transcends every other obligation, and the people have the right to waive the anti-third-term tradition.

There is not a scintilla of evidence before the country that Mr. Roosevelt is disposed to take this view of his pledge and to consent to run again at the command of the great majority of his party and of many men belonging to other parties. But, without any encouragement from him, the agitation for a third term for him grows in volume and intensity with every manifestation of opposition from the "vested interests."

Here are two typical resolutions which illustrate the temper of the people. The Pennsylvania House unanimously resolved—

That the House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania extends to Theodore Roosevelt, President of the United States, its hearty approval and commendation of his efforts to prevent the great railroads and other corporations of the country from using their wealth and power to oppress and injure the citizens in their rights and property, and to enforce justice and a "square deal" for all. We commend him for his endeavors to enforce existing laws against corporations, and to bring them under just and legal regulation and control, and we condemn and denounce any combinations of corporate wealth with politicians of any party or parties intended to reverse and defeat the policies of justice which the President has so wisely and fearlessly inaugurated.

With practical unanimity the Minnesota House resolved—

That the best interests of the general government and the successful establishment of the great public measures which have been inaugurated by the present national administration demand the renomination and re-election of Theodore Roosevelt to the Presidency of the United States.

If Not Roosevelt, Who?

In connection with the third term movement in favor of Mr. Roosevelt, the question has naturally arisen, who, in the event of the President's final and absolute refusal to run again, should be "the second choice" of the people who want his policies to prevail? Persistent reports from Washington represent the President as ready to use his influence in behalf of Secretary Taft, who is now an avowed candidate for the Republican nomination. This has led to much heated talk of "dictation," and Senator Foraker has opened a campaign in Ohio to defeat the Secretary at indirect and quasi-popular primaries, being a presidential aspirant himself. The Ohio fight is likely to be a spectacular one, for the Senator, with his friends, claims to control the "organization," and it is a question whether a genuinely popular expression of opinion can be obtained in Ohio under existing laws and political conditions.

Be this as it may, the important fact is that Secretary Taft is popularly considered to be of the Roosevelt "type," and several western legislatures have, by test ballots, indicated their preference for him as against his rivals—Vice-President Fairbanks, Senator Foraker, ex-Secretary Leslie M. Shaw, and others.

The interests that are opposed to the President on account of his railroad and corporate policies are expected to display equal antagonism to Mr. Taft, who has labored for tariff concessions to the Philippines, for "plain duty" in Cuba and for the extension of government control over commerce and corporate organization. The Secretary has been attending to his public duties, but as soon as these permit him to enter the political arena he may take up Senator Foraker's bold challenge and in a series of speeches make his position clear to the people of Ohio and of the country at large.

The *Manchester Guardian* gives publicity to the following:
The Transvaal Swearing in the New Cabinet.
They are beginning early.

San Francisco Rehabilitation

After most of this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN had been printed we received a delayed article on San Francisco's struggle to keep to ideals of the city beautiful in spite of the overwhelming earthquake disaster. The paper was written and has been brought down to date by ex-mayor James D. Phelan, one of San Francisco's foremost public citizens. We should have given this contribution one of the first places in this Civic Improvement Number if it had come in time. We make room for it as the last of the special civic articles. How the famous Burnham Plan has been modified, the organized efforts to take advantage of an extraordinary situation, the funds still available for improvements, and other problems of rehabilitation, are brought out by Mr. Phelan as they have not heretofore been presented to the reading public.



Notes From Abroad

While America and Italy have proved ready and generous in their support of the Keats-Shelley memorial in Rome, the English committee is still in need of further funds. It will be remembered that the house on the right-hand side, looking upward, of the Trinita steps running down to the Piazza di Spagna, in which Keats became a resident in November, 1820, and in which he died in February, 1821, has been purchased by the memorial committees with a view to turning it into a museum of objects commemorative of Keats, Shelley, and Severn. Not long ago a concert in New York brought in £400 for this purpose, and the English committee hope to raise a large part of the sum of £1,000 which they require by means of a concert and exhibition of relics to be held at Staffordhouse, by permission of the Duke and Duchess of Sutherland. The relics promise to be a collection of rare and great interest, since all owners of objects connected with the two poets (except the Bodleian, which is unfortunately prevented from taking part) have generously offered their possessions.

* * * *

A black list of absentee Peers has been published. It has been compiled with considerable labour from the list of attendances, as shown in the *Lords' Journal*, for the session of 1905, the latest record available. It is a remarkable list in many ways. That the Peers neglect their duties is notorious. But here is an actual record showing the extent to which the members of the Upper House disregard the duties imposed upon them by the writ of summons by virtue of which they take their seats in the House of

Lords. No fewer than 179 Peers failed to attend any of the 83 sittings of the session; 53 more attended on one occasion only; while another 168 put in less than ten attendances during the year. That is to say, if the writs of summons of these Peers who had not attended to their duties ten times during a session were to be cancelled, the members of the House of Lords entitled to a seat would at a stroke be reduced from 591 to 191. If twenty attendances were taken as a test of diligence in the performance of their duties, the number would be still further reduced to 105, or only about one-sixth of the present number. The average attendance during the session was only 75.

* * * *

The *Temps* publishes a leading article entitled "La Folie Pacifiste" which is calculated to produce a considerable sensation among those who still believe in the limitation of armaments and its treatment at the coming Peace Conference. The *Temps* says:

"It is becoming daily more apparent that the Russian Government acted wisely in excluding from the original program of The Hague Conference the question of the limitation of armaments. Thus since this question has been raised there has been an exchange of unpleasant words. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, one of the apostles of the idea, cries in vain 'Love one another.' The more this appeal to concord is heard the more international discord is accentuated. . . . It sufficed that he should wave his olive branch in the *Nation* for a storm of provocations to break out. . . . We are not surprised to see a military country like Germany refuse to bind herself in advance. France has in like manner declined to do so. . . . Let there be no doubt that if this discussion takes place international relations will be worse after than they were before. . . . Let international law be dealt with at The Hague. That is possible and it is useful. But let no further promise be made, for it will not be kept. The illusions to which it would give rise would cause us a further loss of our moral vigour."

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From Punch

Ruskin's Seven Lamps.—Just out, 1s.

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The Bank of England Rifles have been disbanded. Paradoxically their mission was to prevent the bank being rifled.

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Meanwhile, an Order of Nebuchadnezzarites has been founded in Chicago, the members of which will eat their meals and take their exercise on all fours to promote health. 'Tis a merry world, my masters, as Miss Corelli would say.

* * * *

The Kaiser is said to be gradually recovering from the annoyance caused by a mad musician suddenly beating the big drum during an interval at a concert at the Palace. Beating the big drum is, of course, one of the most jealously guarded Imperial prerogatives.

Civic Improvement Number

THE CHAUTAUQUAN this month is a special Civic Improvement Number, the fifth which we have issued in recent years. No other publication has put into available form such an amount of information regarding one of the most significant movements of the day. In this issue are included:

"The National Impulse for Civic Improvement," by Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Secretary of the American Civic Association, Philadelphia. Mr. Woodruff has sought in his two annual addresses to bring out the more striking phases of the civic movement during the year. It has not been his intention to dwell upon the details of the work, but rather to illustrate the general tendencies that have been manifested during the preceding twelve months.

"Architecture and Civic Progress," by Frederick M. Mann, Professor of Architecture in Washington University, St. Louis. Professor Mann is an architect of standing and has had wide professional experience as well as close connection with the academic side of the question. He treats this subject from the point of view of an architect and a citizen interested in the larger phases of civic development and brings out clearly and concisely the rights of the public as contra-distinguished from the narrower rights of the individual. His paper brought forth one of the most interesting debates of the Milwaukee meeting of the American Civic Association.

"Civic Beauty and Civic Safety," by Fielding J. Stilson. Mr. Stilson is now a member of the Board of Education of Los Angeles, California, and was until recently a member of the Public Art Commission of that city. He has been identified with numerous civic movements in Southern California. This paper which grew out of his connection with the San Francisco disaster emphasizes an important phase of the problem and a point that has been made by the Association on more than one occasion and especially in connection with the Secretary's Review for 1905 as published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for June, 1906.

"Civic Activities and Social Settlements," by Graham Romeyn Taylor. Mr. Taylor, Vice-President of the Department of Social Settlements of the American Civic Association, started his civic work with the reputation of his father, Dr. Graham Taylor, of Chicago Commons, to help him, but

he has made a place for himself and although a young man still, is a recognized authority in social and civic work generally.

"Recent Park Development," by Andrew Wright Crawford. Mr. Crawford as Secretary of the City Parks Association of Philadelphia and as Vice-President of the Department of Parks and Public Reservations, A. C. A., has been in a peculiarly fortunate position to gather a very considerable amount of information touching park development. An indefatigable collector of facts, he has brought together in this report a great amount of information which will prove of great value to all who are interested in parks. His report shows how widespread has been the development of interest in this phase of civic activity.

"City Making," by Frederick L. Ford. Mr. Ford as City Engineer of Hartford, Conn., has had an excellent opportunity for putting into force and effect numerous important civic undertakings. As Vice-President of the Department of City Making, A. C. A., he has given thoughtful attention to the whole subject of the reorganization of our cities along intelligent and far-reaching lines; his report indicates how much has been accomplished in this direction and how carefully he has followed the movement.

"What One Association Did," by Frederick A. Whiting. Mr. Whiting has had a long experience in civic improvement work in small communities. In his paper he sets forth clearly in simple language just how to produce results in a small place. There is no more frequently asked question than "What shall we do and how?" Mr. Whiting answers this question satisfactorily and his paper has value because it is based upon actual experience.

"Texas Cities and Their Improvements," by Mrs. William Christian. Mrs. Christian is an active civic worker in Texas. Indeed in many respects she is the pioneer in that cause in her native State, both as an official in various organizations, clubs and civic bodies and as the editor of an improvement column in the *Houston Post*, in which she has contributed to the development of a sound civic sentiment.

"The National Significance of the Washington Improvements," by Hon. Henry B. F. Macfarland. Mr. Macfarland, the President Commissioner of the District of Columbia, loves the city over which he presides and believes in its future. He is thoroughly committed to the plans adopted several years ago by the Senate Commission and

is working heartily for their incorporation in the policy of the capital city of the nation. He points out the needed lesson of the national significance of these improvements, which help along not only the cause of civic improvement locally, but generally throughout the United States. Few people appreciate the tremendous influence which Washington has already had, and will have if the Committee report is carried out in its entirety.

"Some Features of Pennsylvania Forestry," by Joseph T. Rothrock. Dr. Rothrock as Commissioner of Forestry from 1893 to 1905 added to his already well established reputation as a forester of ability and his experience thus gained gives great force and effect to his very interesting discussion of the development of forestry interests in Pennsylvania. Pennsylvania is so frequently referred to as an horrible example in various ways, that the public overlook its many substantial achievements in numerous directions, notably in connection with its forestry interests.

These papers were features of the second annual convention of the American Civic Association at Milwaukee, Wisconsin; in our judgment the wider publicity given to them here is warranted by their intrinsic merit and significance. The A. C. A. has offices in the North American Building, Philadelphia, Pa.; general officers: President, J. Horace McFarland, Harrisburg, Pa.; Acting Secretary, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia; Treasurer, William B. Howland, New York; Vice-Presidents, James D. Phelan, San Francisco; L. E. Holden, Cleveland; Chairman Advisory Committee, Robert C. Ogden, New York.

The remarkable campaign for the Preservation of Niagara Falls—an extraordinary story of public *vs.* "vested" interests—will be comprehensively presented in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for August.



The National Impulse for Civic Improvement

By Clinton Rogers Woodruff

WHEN President Roosevelt, on June 29, 1906, attached his signature to "An Act for the Control and Regulation of the Waters of Niagara River, for the Preservation of Niagara Falls, and for other Purposes," he signed the *magna charta* of the civic improvement movement. It was the first distinct national recognition of the rights of the American people to the free and unobstructed enjoyment of the natural beauties bestowed upon us by a beneficent God.

President Roosevelt in another connection has pointed out that the "prime difference between civilized and uncivilized peoples is, that among civilized people each generation works, not only for its own well-being, but for the well-being of generations yet unborn. If we permit the natural resources of this land to be destroyed, we thereby prove our unfitness to stand in the forefront of civilized people."

We cannot expect, however, to have a Niagara campaign every year, although the present one has yet several important phases to pass through. Only once in a lifetime comes the opportunity to do some great, some striking thing such as that accomplished during the past year; but around about us on every side lie other opportunities equally significant and equally useful, if we will but grasp them. We find the scenery on every hand despoiled by advertisements of various kinds. As Lady Betty in that most charming volume, "Lady Betty Across the Waters," by the Williamsons, said:

"The hills or mountains, I am not sure which to call them—even the Palisades which had been so dinned into my ears, were not high enough to satisfy me at a first glance; but soon I saw that it was their grouping and their perfect proportions in relation to each other which made them so exquisite. As we steamed on along the green and golden flood, I began to love the Hudson so much that I could

have shrieked with rage at the great glaring advertisements on boardings. What can the scenery have done to Americans that they should do their best to spoil it?"

The next great war which the American people must wage is that against the desecration of our landscape and of our surroundings by bill-boards and unsightly posters. This campaign must be waged to abate the nuisance, and to create a public sentiment sufficiently strong to keep it abated.

The North End Improvement Club in Tacoma, Washington, has adopted this resolution:

"Resolved, That this Club place itself on record as being in favor of its members pledging themselves not to purchase from firms advertising on bill-boards; and that the Secretary write the American Civic Association asking it to agitate the question throughout the country, sending it a copy of this resolution."

In defense of this resolution, the Club declares:

"That the beauty of a large number of our American cities is marred by unsightly bill-boards. There doesn't seem to be any method of getting at the matter except by arousing public sentiment against it. There is a bill-board trust throughout the country, and there is need of a general movement against bill-boards."

A suggestion has been made that they should be taxed out of existence. This is good. Another suggestion is that the consumers of this country refrain from purchasing from firms utilizing bill-boards. This is better. Recall how in times past unpopular instructors have been driven from West Point by what is known as "the silence." It was a very simple but effective method: The students at mess and at other places where the unpopular instructor might be, simply abstained from any conversation in his presence. The result invariably was his retirement because he could not withstand the silence thus visited upon him.

If the American people once resolve that offensive bill-boards must go, they have a most direct and effective method for their suppression in their own hands—they have only to abstain from purchasing goods advertised on bill-boards.

This is an effective weapon always at hand; and will unquestionably if utilized bring a complete relief; for no manufacturer of goods, no purveyor to the public taste, will fly in the face of a public opinion thus expressed.

Next in importance to freeing our landscape of objectionable bill-boards, is the movement for cleanliness. Too many communities are permitted to become eyesores. Too many of our cities are "built in black air, which by its accumulated foulness first renders all ornament invisible in distance and then chokes its interstices with soot." Verily cleanliness is next to godliness; and if our American cities are to stand before the world as purified and redeemed, they must be clean. The national impulse for civic improvement must manifest itself not only in the movement for the preservation of Niagara, not only in the movement for the suppression of objectionable bill-boards, but in a very real desire to clean up the various localities.

For nearly seven years a committee of the Business Men's Club of Cincinnati has been working for cleaner and better streets in that city. During most of that time the chief endeavor has been to arouse public sentiment and to inaugurate modern methods. Early in the present year it was decided to hold a "clean-street convention," and this was held a year ago. It was opened with a mechanical parade, which was a complete success. At the formal meeting, men representative of the city government were present, as also of all the business and improvement associations, and the several political parties. There was a meeting of women along the same line; and this was equally successful. There was a meeting of school children in the separate schools, each principal setting aside one hour during the day for the singing of appropriate songs and the discussion of the subject. Speakers, mostly business men, were sent to the different schools to make short addresses.

There was a large and enthusiastic meeting of newsboys, the convention songs being rendered by the newsboys' band of forty pieces. The Mayor and other city officials

made short addresses. There was a parade of the street cleaning department on the last afternoon of the convention, the men all appearing in their new uniforms. The banners carried at the head of each division told of the number of members and equipment needed. Manufacturers of various devices gave demonstrations during the week. Thus in these various ways the people were given fresh ideas as to modern methods.

How much better would our communities look, if the people who reside in them took some pains, first, with their own property, and then with the common property of the community! Fortunately, the people of this country *are* awakening to the opportunities that lie around them on every side, of making simple but substantial additions to the appearance of their cities. We find in all the leading communities, large and small, movements, first, to clean up, then to beautify in various ways.

The "City Beautiful" is no longer a dream, a mere aspiration of the idealist. It is becoming in many directions an accomplished fact, largely because of the great growth of the national impulse for civic improvement. Among smaller communities we find civic centers being established in the shape of town halls and local centers, and of libraries and public schools; so that the people have a rallying place—a place where they can go to discuss their local needs. To illustrate: The town of Framingham, Massachusetts, has executed a ten years' lease of its Town Hall to the Improvement Association of that place at a nominal rental. The Association purposes to restore and alter the building, fitting it for a general community center, with club rooms, an assembly hall, and a stage for dramatics, lectures, and the like. It is a notable undertaking, that is sure to be carried through with *eclat*. The improvements to the building will be interesting architecturally, a model of convenience; and its environment will be such as to add greatly to the beauty and the interest of the town.

Wherever we go, whether by railroad, boat, or car-

riage, we find the same tendency toward improvement. Beauty, cleanliness and art are no longer reserved for the few, are no longer the perquisites of the aristocrats, but are made the common heritage of the common people, for the benefit and uplift of all.

Hand in hand with this local improvement and the beautification of the home grounds, we find the educational authorities appreciating the fact that the school is a center of influence. If, as has been suggested in Chicago, art is a corrective for crime and is therefore to be employed in the adornment of the new juvenile court house, then art should be effective in forming correct habits and as a preventive of crime. Educators are coming to see that the aim of society should not be alone for the redemption of those who have fallen from grace, but equally for the prevention of those who are already in the paths of virtue from falling away. As a consequence, we find that our school houses are better built, are better decorated, are coming more and more to be centers of refinement, of hopeful influence on those who come within their walls, whether as student or as adults.

Chicago's experiment in these matters is particularly striking. It is spending large sums of money for the erection of suitable buildings for its school children. These school houses are civic centers in the truest and highest sense—centers of influence, of refinement, of uplift; and here is where the emphasis should be placed, rather than further along the line, after the damage is done. In short, it is a modern application of the old adage that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. Time and again I have advocated, with all the zeal at my command, that the school house should be made the real civic center of the community, and that instead of being a place where the children resort for a few hours each day for five days in the week and forty weeks in the year, they should be open at all times to all the community and made a constant source of helpfulness to all classes.

Fortunately, "citizen-making" and "city-making" are

coming to be regarded, as they of right should be, as the most pressing questions of the present day. The schools and the colleges and the universities are awakening to their opportunity and are striving mightily in every direction to meet the obligations laid upon them by new conditions. They are appreciating the necessity of preparing the citizens to make greater and grander cities, through the creation of better prepared citizens.

Not only, however, upon the ethical side is the impulse manifesting itself, but likewise upon the material. "City-making" is a new art, but more and more we find men of intelligence, of capacity, of statesmanlike quality devoting themselves to its pursuit. I find upon my desk reports upon group plans and civic centers from San Francisco, from Denver, from Cleveland, from Indianapolis, from Los Angeles, from Cincinnati, from Providence, Rhode Island, from Philadelphia, from Manila, from St. Louis, from Hartford, Connecticut, from Toronto, Canada, from New York, from Columbia, South Carolina; and I have by no means exhausted the roll-call of the cities. It is now coming to be the common practise for a community to retain the services of experts to suggest ways and means for improving present conditions and to plan for the future.

I have spoken of the Niagara Bill as being the first national recognition of the demand for civic improvement; but there has been another national effort, less conspicuous it is true, but in many respects quite as hopeful and significant, which should be mentioned as a further indication of the national impulse for civic improvement. I refer to the work which has been undertaken at Manila under the superintendence of Mr. Burnham, by the direction of the United State Government, looking toward the remodeling and improvement of that island capital. The employment by the federal government of an expert in city-making establishes a precedent that I am sure will have far-reaching effect, taking its place, as it should, alongside of the famous plan for the improvement of the capital city of the nation.

These precedents strengthen the demand of the American Institute of Architects for a Federal Advisory Board on Art to "secure beauty in the buildings, parks and monuments belonging to the Federal Government." The Washington Commission of 1901 has been and is being followed in a growing list of cities and if the principle of the federal control in matters of civic art is once established, it will not be long before the state and municipalities will fall in line.

In the same connection, reference must be made to the growing number of reports upon the systems of public reservations and parks. The Metropolitan Park Commission of Providence has just issued a most striking report on the park development of that community, with extended references to what has been done in all the leading communities of the country along the same lines. This is the second great effort of the same kind, the first being that of the Allied Organizations of Philadelphia upon the parks and public reservations of my own city.

These reports are important not only because they arouse public sentiment, but because they cultivate it and direct it on the right lines. Those who are responsible for these improvements are interested not only in the present but in the future; in short, they are fulfilling the great requisite of modern civilization, in that they are caring not only for the well-being of the present generation, but for that of the generations yet unborn.

The national impulse for civic improvement to which I have been referring is the beginning of an awakening of a general civic consciousness which means the redemption of our American communities from the sordid and the selfish and the base. As my friend Horace Traubel has put it:

"I say of New York, I say of Philadelphia: we will make you beautiful beyond the beauty of the dreams of this dear prophet. We are starting up all over, ready to assume the great task. No land, no city, no hamlet is utterly without us. We are omnipresently busy. The old order, the old love, grown to be the old hate, must give way to the

new order, the new love grown to be the new promise. We are not going to abandon the cities to machinery and money. We are going to reclaim the cities for souls and love. We are going to save the human spirit for itself. We are going to give the cities a chance to show that the city may be as beautiful and as wholesome as the farm. There is no reason except in so far as man's greed is ailing why the air of the city should be dangerous to breathe. We will impart to the cities the opportunity of the noblest human husbandry. We are not willing to admit that the cities need to be destroyed. We are going to prove that the cities need to be saved. We want the cities. We want to save the cities with a soul. Are we to confess that we may live very far apart in amity but that we cannot live together in amity? * * * Our cities are set right here. Are already here. Do not mistake the place or the year. The year is this year. The place is the spot on which you stand."

Recent Park Development

By Andrew Wright Crawford

THE park movement during the past year has been marked by decided advances in six directions. Two are fundamental: 1. The study of the City Plan and its effect upon parks and the effect of parks upon the City Plan have been reflected as never before in reports on the improvement of cities and towns. 2. The necessity of giving to American cities the power enjoyed by European municipalities of condemning properties that front on proposed parks and parkways in order to sell them at an increased price after the improvements are consummated and thus pay therefor, has been more clearly recognized and agitated.

A third advance is the planning of park systems by cities of the second and third classes, and by towns. Fourth, the development of the uses of parks has been signalized by the institution of recreation centers, the practical ideal of the playground movement. Fifth, the opportunities for beautifying water fronts have been appreciated as never before

and plans on the lines of European water fronts suggested. Sixth, the public's interest in and understanding of methods for beautifying American cities by all of the foregoing means has been exhibited in a greater degree than ever before by the activity of old local associations and the formation of new ones, by the presentation of new reports on the comprehensive improvement of individual cities and towns, by a remarkable number of articles averaging, it is reported, twenty a month on the subject of town improvement, by the incorporation in nearly a dozen magazines of regular departments on town and city beautification and by editorials and newspaper articles on the subject,—a general interest shown directly by favorable votes on park loans and indirectly by favorable action by politicians, reform or stalwart, on the acquisition of new parks, parkways and playgrounds, and the appointment of Parks, Art and Improvement Commissions.

THE CITY PLAN.

The United Civic Association of the Borough of Queens of New York City published during the past year a report of its Committee on the City Plan and Parks, three-fourths of which is devoted to the subject "Main Traffic Arteries." The fifty-three specific recommendations as to these arteries are followed by these general recommendations:

"These main traffic arteries being the shortest routes between important points should accommodate all needed kinds of transportation as part of their convenience. None should be less than one hundred feet wide finally and all new ones built should have that as a minimum width. At intersections of important arteries there should be at all appropriate places circles or round points, as found in Washington, Paris, London, etc. These are necessary in order to facilitate distribution of traffic with avoidance of congestion. They, at the same time, add elegance to the plan. There should be a shore front highway developed as necessary around the whole water front of the Borough. In sections of the Borough where the surface is decidedly irregular we recommend that the roadways follow the windings of the valleys so far as possible, avoiding all avoidable cuts and fills, and going from level to level by easiest grade. Actual recorded experience has demonstrated incontestably that land thus developed can bring more per lot than similar surface developed on the rigid indiscriminating gridiron plan."

In the report of the Civic League on the improvement of Columbia, S. C., a city of fifty thousand inhabitants, the

experts, Messrs. Kelsey & Guild, insist upon the importance of the plan of the city's streets. They say:

"It is extremely unfortunate that the original plan was so arbitrary, with apparently little, if any, consideration given to the topography of the land. Even on a flat plane, the gridiron plan can never be said to be entirely satisfactory, and with no diagonal or 'ring' (encircling) streets the conditions are still more unfavorable, and become aggravated as the city grows. Had the engineer but provided diagonal streets, radiating from the capitol, and taken into consideration the contour of the land, a much better foundation would have been laid for a convenient and beautiful capital city of large population."

The following quotation shows the authors' appreciation of the inter-relation of park systems and the city plan and the interdependence of the two: "Such a plan, therefore, involves not only general consideration of city growth, but must include its main parts governing the establishment and extension of the parks, playgrounds, boulevards and streets and the location of public buildings and institutions."

The report of Charles Mulford Robinson, ex-secretary of this Association, on the proposed plan for the improvement of the City of Denver, issued by the Art Commission of that city in January of this year, calls attention to the Denver street plan as weak in arterial diagonal thoroughfares. The same author's report on the beautifying of Honolulu, which by the way shows the extent of the agitation for beautifying cities, devotes a section to the plan of streets from which I take but the single sentence: "Shun the check-board plan as you would the plague."

A report on Staten Island, a residential portion of greater New York, insists on a contemporaneous study of the city plan and the park system in the following words: "The question of a suitable park system is so intimately related to the proposed street system, that the two must of course be considered together."

These specific instances, selected from a number, bear evidence of the new interest in the City Plan and of the recognition of the fact that parks are but a part thereof. But there has been during the past year, a realization of what it means not to recognize this fact and two notable instances

are afforded by two cities of widely different population, namely, New York with its four million inhabitants and Hartford with its one hundred thousand. New York feels keenly the mistake of blocking absolutely two of its ten main thoroughfares, running north and south by the solid mass of Central Park. That park has been a vast benefit to New York City and propositions to remedy the mistake made fifty years ago are academic. But it is clearly recognized that a mistake was made, and that the same amount of area could have been chosen far better if the city plan had been studied and ground for the park had been selected somewhere else, as along the two water fronts, in the form of an elongated park between Sixth and Seventh avenues, or in some other of the many ways that have been suggested. Similarly, Pope Park in Hartford, Conn., chosen recently without any study of the street plan, has been found to block seriously a thoroughfare from the outlying section to the city's center.

The widening interest in the City Plan is shown by the reports from which quotations have been made; but, so far as I know, there has been no actual revision of the street system of an American city as a whole with the exception of what San Francisco may have done, if indeed it has avoided the mistake of Baltimore. But we realize that actual revision must be undertaken. There is no reason why prompt action in all outlying sections should not prevent further errors. Before the more or less radical correction of previous mistakes can be undertaken by American cities they must be given the power enjoyed by European cities, the agitation for which in America is the second notable and, because of its far-reaching effects, fundamental advance made within the last year.

POWER TO CONDEMN MORE LAND THAN IS ABSOLUTELY NEEDED
IN ORDER TO SELL AGAIN.

Mr. Theodore Marburg in a pamphlet calls attention to the recent opening in London of the Kingsway, a street only one hundred feet wide and a mile in length, at a cost

of \$30,000,000. This entire expense has been more than recouped because the city had the authority to condemn and purchase the land fronting on the street to sell again after the improvement had been completed.

The first important pronouncement upon this subject is contained in the report of the New York City Improvement Commission published about a year and a half ago:

"Although the expenditures necessarily required by any proper plan must be large, they could in many instances be greatly reduced, if the city had the power exercised in many European cities of condemning more than the area actually required, so that the city might reap the benefit to be derived from the enhanced value of neighboring property, and in the judgment of the Commission steps should be taken to secure such changes in the constitution and legislative enactments as may be necessary for the purpose. This method of taking more land than required, with the object of resale at an advance for recouping part of the expense, has been applied in various cities of Great Britain and the continent where extensive alterations have been undertaken for securing architectural effects, remedying sanitary conditions or improving the city generally, and it is questionable whether many of the improvements would have been otherwise accomplished. Objection to giving the city such power has sometimes been raised on the ground that it might be abused or injudiciously exercised. In these times, however, of increasing municipal activities when so many more extensive powers are constantly being entrusted to those charged with the administration of the city's affairs, such objection can scarcely be considered necessarily fatal or conclusive, if proper safeguards and limitations are imposed."

In the report on "American Park Systems," hereafter referred to, the want of such authority is thus summed up:

"If Philadelphia had the authority to condemn land on both sides of Fairmount Park Parkway, while the initial expenditure would, of course, be larger, in the long run it is altogether likely that the city would be able to recoup the entire expense. In other words, Philadelphia's taxpayers will pay from eight to ten million dollars, because the city has not this authority. Further, if it had the authority, the city having secured title to these properties, could sell the land with building restrictions, thus insuring a more beautiful approach to our great park."

The citizens of San Francisco have been endeavoring to have this power given the city in order to further the work of reconstruction. In St. Louis, too, one of the recommendations in the City Plan Report of the Civic League will be a law similar to the Ohio statute, which provides for the purchase of more land than is needed for a definite improvement with a view to recovering the cost of the improvement

by the re-sale of additional land area. The authority in Ohio is the most general that has yet been given and is one of the beneficial results of the agitation for the Cleveland Group Plan and the undertaking of its actual construction.

SMALLER CITIES AND PARK SYSTEMS.

A report on "American Park Systems," published during the past year, showed that nearly all the large cities of the country had more or less adequate plans for securing larger parks and connecting existing and proposed parks by parkways. This idea has been taken up by smaller cities, —a significant development of the last twelve months. Honolulu, Colorado Springs, Columbia, S. C., and other cities and towns have issued improvement reports, all of which dwell on the necessity of securing large outer parks before their natural beauty is interfered with by building operations, and on the desirability of connecting them by parkways, carrying the resulting park system into the center of the city by means of park approaches.

Greenville, S. C., with a population of but 13,000, has employed an expert to report on its comprehensive development. A report from Indiana notes that a recent state law has been the means of creating park boards in cities of the second class as well as of the first class. In East St. Louis, Ill., of 35,000 inhabitants, a committee has been appointed by the Civic Improvement League to secure the appointment of a Park Commission. Moorestown, N. Y., with but 3,000 citizens, proposes to acquire its first park. These are but instances. These cities of the future will be more wisely planned than our existing large centers, which have grown only at right angles.

Metropolitan centers are working to correct the mistakes the smaller cities are avoiding. Denver, Cincinnati, and Columbus, Ohio, have joined the procession since the last meeting of the Association. In Cincinnati, a bond issue of \$350,000 was authorized in July of 1905 for the purpose of purchasing new park property, and the mayor and the Board of Council have each appointed a committee of promi-

nent men to confer together regarding the enlargement of the park area of the city, and the laying out of plans for a systematic beautifying of the entire city. This is a very recent move.

As the result of the report of Mr. Robinson in January, Denver has already bought seven parks aggregating 429 acres. Providence, R. I., under the leadership of Henry A. Barker, has acquired six new parks and has issued a report on its proposed system which reproduces ten of the maps in the report on the American Park System.

St. Louis has appropriated \$17,000,000 for small parks and boulevards, and the famous Civic League "is at work on an inner and outer park and boulevard system which will include some three or four thousand acres of outer park reservation and more than thirty miles of additional boulevards."

No new park area has been acquired in Washington, Congress having failed utterly to begin the acquisition of the *outer* park system proposed by the commission in 1901. It's not too late.

Six years ago the Palisades of the Hudson were threatened with complete destruction as are the Falls of Niagara now. A great outcry caused the appointment of the Palisades Interstate Park Commission, which reports almost the entire preservation of that natural scenery which, of course, represents in the eyes of contractors, only so much quarrying material just as the Falls represents in the eyes of manufacturers, only so much power. We have saved the one,—we are saving and must save the other.

RECREATION CENTERS.

The fourteen recreation centers of Chicago recently established unquestionably constitute the greatest step in advance in the use of parks that has been taken in any one year by an American city. Their use by hundreds of thousands, who have enjoyed the varied amusements and who have taken advantage of their facilities for improvement in health and morals, has more than justified their construction,

at the average expense of \$90,000. The coming year is likely to see the duplication of the Recreation Centers in many cities throughout the United States.

Baltimore has within the last three months opened a recreation building in Patterson Park at a cost of \$50,000. A strong movement was inaugurated last winter to have a similar Recreation Center opened in Washington. The report of the St. Paul Department of Parks calls official attention to Chicago's recreation centers introducing a statement as to what they cover with the sentence "The Recreation Centers established in Chicago present the ideal of playground possibilities."

In reports from many correspondents, the dominance of the playground movement forms the keynote. Nearly every city has one or more new playgrounds to report for the past year. In many, the playground was acquired for that purpose. In still more, old parks have been given new life by the new method of using them. New playgrounds are being established—and a new national organization has been called into being. Unquestionably the striking development of the year is this use of parks for conversion into playgrounds.

WATER FRONTS.

We are accustomed to believe that European cities are ahead of us in all civic art matters and that, whilst we have much to learn from them, they have nothing to learn from us. Particularly do we believe this to be true of Paris. But it is interesting to know that during the past year M. J. C. Forestier, Conservateur des Parcs et Promenades de Paris, has issued a well illustrated report entitled "Grand Villes et Systemes de Parcs," in which are reproduced six of the plans published in the report on "American Park Systems" and also plans of the City of Adelaide, Garden City, London, and Paris. Paris copied Washington in its street system. There is much promise that European cities will adopt the idea of our outer park systems. Let us adopt their treatment of water fronts.

The appreciation of the idle opportunities of our water fronts has gained ground steadily. The report of the Park Commission of St. Paul states that during the year 1905 a strip of land along and including the Mississippi River bluff for a distance of two and one-fourth miles for the extension of the river boulevard was secured and the Board has ordered the condemnation of another strip a quarter of a mile in length. The recognition of the opportunities offered by the water front of St. Paul is recorded in these words:

"This west side bluff which stretches for about four and one-half miles from South Wabasha to Mendota, a continuous cliff of sedimentary rock clad with native foliage, except as denuded by natural forces or the hand of man, is a dominant note in the landscape harmonies of St. Paul, for it stands out in the open, the most conspicuous and familiar of the natural features within the daily vision of the people from all the many points of view which look out upon the Mississippi valley from the river front or from the heights which encircle the city, while its own summit commands the splendid panorama of river scenery, including the sparkling crescent of the city and its environment of hills from Dayton's bluff to the white promontory of Fort Snelling. No more important duty devolves upon the board than the preservation and improvement of public use and enjoyment of these commanding features of the picturesque river frontage of St. Paul."

That St. Paul and Minneapolis have done a great deal is shown by the further statement:

"The people of St. Paul are so well pleased with its river boulevard that they are eager for its speedy completion southward to Snelling Bridge. This done there should be no delay in pushing its extension to the Minneapolis boundary over a mile northward, from where it will connect with the east side boulevard of Minneapolis. The river boulevard on the Minneapolis side now built from Minnehaha Park to Lake street is to be completed this year to Franklin bridge, making its whole length three and one-half miles. Thus these dual boulevards, supplemented on the west side by the military road through the reservation to Snelling bridge will form a circuit of nearly ten miles of driveway, looking down on the enchanting scenery of the deep and narrow gorge through which the swift river has cut its way."

The report notes that the projected parkways of St. Paul include the Mississippi River boulevard covering twelve and one-half miles, of which it has secured but two.

The report of the Park Board of Minneapolis contains similar evidence of the appreciation of the water front and its official park department exhibits initiative. In its report for the year 1905 it shows the remarkable success it has

already attained in the preservation of the valley of the Mississippi River and of the lakes that lie to the westward, a success which it proposed to follow up by the preservation of the shores of three other lakes and by extending the reservation along the Mississippi River, all to be connected with proposed parkways.

The City Parks Association of Philadelphia published in June, 1906, a plan for the development of the Schuylkill, the treatment of the Seine being its avowed model. The Park Commission on the Improvement of the District of Columbia five years ago urged the development of the water front of the Nation's capital on the Potomac in the style approved by European cities.

The water front of Harrisburg is fortunate in not having railroad tracks along it. During the past year 4,200 feet of the frontage of the river has been given to the Park Commission. Erie, Pa., has acquired 175 acres on the Bay. Decatur, Ill., has secured ten acres on the river. Typical examples, all.

PUBLIC INTEREST.

The interest of the public is exhibited positively by favorable votes upon loans for the acquisition of park land, as in Chicago, Baltimore, and St. Louis, and by the membership of organizations of private citizens formed to further the movement. The same interest is reflected by the magazines and newspaper articles to which reference has been made. Different associations are coöperating. The Civic Associations of the Borough of Queens of New York are twenty-three in number. The Allied Organizations of Philadelphia began with seven and grew with considerable difficulty to twenty. A year ago the number was forty-eight and is now fifty-six, an increase which has been made generally at the request of the new organization. Of these, no less than ten are purely business organizations. In any city or town it is comparatively easy to get up an organization of a certain number. This is because there is always a certain percentage of individuals who are sure to have similar aims.

But when we find an organization like the City Parks Association of Philadelphia, which has been in existence over eighteen years, and which has continually advanced its claims to public support, increase within the year its membership of 575 to a membership of 825, there is some explanation to be found other than that which is sufficient for the formation of such an organization. These two hundred and fifty new members, an increase of almost fifty per cent over the old organization, represent, in my judgment, the educational influence exerted by associations of which the American Civic Association is the national type. That ground, harrowed year after year for seventeen years, should in its eighteenth year yield a product equal to fifty per cent. of the product of the entire seventeen years before, is a phenomenon that requires other explanation than natural growth. I think it unquestionably expresses in a single instance the tremendous advance in the interest of the public gained during the last year or two in the movement for the city beautiful.

Arts and Crafts.—It is our aim, practically, to help individuals and communities in the effort to obtain works of art for display that public interest in the subject may be awakened. The products of the craftsman come very close to us in their influence, for he attempts to make beautiful the things we see, and use, and think about in daily life. Arts and Crafts work is more possible to obtain for exhibition purposes in small communities than the so-called Fine Arts, though there is no longer a distinction between the Fine Arts and Industrial Arts; it is all Art, or should be.

To meet inquiries for bibliography, club programs, help in organizing societies, and collecting and arranging Art Exhibits a department leaflet is published, which endeavors to give definite and usable information. We have arranged a classified reading list of one thousand workers, with names and addresses. We expect to have a set of slides illustrating the Arts and Crafts movement ready for rent.—*Mrs. M. F. Johnston, Chairman Arts and Crafts Dept., A. C. A., Richmond, Ind.*

The National Significance of Washington Improvements

By Hon. H. B. F. Macfarland

President Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia.

THOMAS JEFFERSON had almost as much to do with the creation of the National Capital as George Washington; he was second only to the great first President who first saw the need of it. In the long and bitter struggle in Congress over the selection of a site for the Federal District, for which the Constitution had provided, after the unrequited and indignant soldiers of the Revolution had frightened Congress from Philadelphia to Princeton in 1783, and convinced it that the National Government must control the National Capital, it was Thomas Jefferson who, at his own dinner table settled the matter and placed the National Capital on the Potomac. Afterwards he regretted that he had allowed Alexander Hamilton that night to induce him to influence the Virginia members to agree to vote for the assumption of the State revolutionary-war debts by the National Government to please the North, in exchange for Northern votes for the Potomac rather than the Delaware site to please the South. He had builded better than he knew in this, as afterwards in the Louisiana Purchase, yet he deserves the credit of results.

Having thus brought to George Washington power to place the Federal District on the Potomac, Jefferson aided him in placing it just where it is and in preparing it for its future uses. No other public man, except Madison, took anything like the same interest taken by Washington, who looked upon the establishment of a permanent seat for the Government of the United States, to be controlled by it exclusive of the States, as one of the most important acts of his career. To Washington it was a symbol of perpetual union; of that nation which he foresaw made up of indis-

tractible states indissolubly united, when other men were wondering how soon and for what reasons the States would break the invisible bonds of their alliance. Jefferson and Madison did not view it quite in the same way, but they freely gave their advice and assistance to the greater Virginian.

Planning for a nation of illimitable expansion and duration, with the spiritual vision of the seer and the scientific skill of the surveyor, George Washington fixed upon the most strategic and beautiful site in all the hundred mile stretch of the Potomac where he was to choose. He proceeded to lay out a city whose magnificent proportions were in startling contrast with the comparatively small area, population, and wealth of the country and the weakness and poverty of the Government. It deserved all the ridicule poured upon it if the United States were not to remain united or if they were not to grow in territory and power. But it was only those who could see nothing but that day of small things that laughed at Washington's great plans for a great future. Jefferson, perhaps with some unconscious prescience of his own great expansion of the national territory, saw nothing ridiculous in it, but on the contrary, contributed his practical wisdom and all that he had learned in cities abroad to make the plans more splendid.

No capital in the world at that time could compare with the capital that Washington planned, and all of them together furnished only suggestions. It is another proof of his extraordinary genius that a hundred years afterwards, a commission of experts, the best that could be found in our country, after viewing all the great capitals of the world could suggest no improvement upon the old plan of Washington. And the plan, it must always be remembered, was Washington's, although he had the advice of Jefferson and Madison and utilized the technical skill of L'Enfant and Ellicott. Unfortunately, Washington did not live to see the National Government at work in the National Capital, for death carried him off untimely the year before President Adams removed it from Philadelphia to Washington. But he had

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set the boundaries of the ten miles square in a diamond-shape, resting on the southern end of his market-town of Alexandria. He had actually acquired over one-half of the land of the future City of Washington free of cost to the Government on the argument to the nineteen original proprietors that what they kept would be greatly increased in value. He had on the map marked out the unparalleled avenues, streets and parks of the new Capital and, with money derived from the sale of part of the Government lots and from loans made by Virginia and Maryland, had built the President's House, the Capitol and other buildings for the National Government. Every acre of it was sacred to his name. No wonder that by universal voice it was named the City of Washington.

The National Government had done nothing for the National Capital, because it had nothing to do with. It was practically penniless. It came to the Federal District on the gifts of the original proprietors of the site of Washington and on the loans from Virginia and Maryland. There is a curious delusion in many quarters that the National Government supports the expense of the National Capital, and has always done so, and ignorant people sometimes say the inhabitants of the District of Columbia are and always have been mendicants with respect to the National Government. Almost the reverse is the case. The National Government was literally a mendicant when it came to the District, and the inhabitants furnished even the buildings in which it did its work. And then for seventy-eight years the National Government allowed, and indeed required, the comparatively few people paying taxes in the District to carry practically the whole burden of municipal expenditure. The making of the National Capital, which ought to have been from the beginning the task of all the people of the United States, was at the beginning imposed upon the few residents of the District, and its maintenance, which ought to have been largely the work of the whole country, was for more than three-quarters of a century practically exacted

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of the people who had the fortune to live in the National Capital. At first the National Government, still almost experimental, burdened with the revolutionary debt, and without money, representing a country drained by war and with resources undeveloped, could do nothing else. But there is no excuse for the neglect of after years. Presidents, Senators, and Representatives repeatedly acknowledged the neglect of it. Official reports praised the public spirit of the District residents, deplored the staggering effect of their municipal burdens, and reproached Congress, but beyond adding to the buildings which had been given to it in 1800, or erecting new ones for its use, and providing an aqueduct to bring water for its needs, the National Government did practically nothing for the National Capital. The municipal improvements had to be made and the municipal services had to be maintained by the people who lived in Washington. The National Government, of course, did nothing in Georgetown or in Alexandria, and those municipalities had to bear all their expenses. By 1846 Alexandria had become so dissatisfied that it brought about the retrocession to Virginia of the territory she had given for the District, leaving only the seventy square miles of land and water ceded by Maryland, including the whole breadth of the Potomac.

The chief explanation of the extraordinary treatment given the National Capital by the National Government through so many years, is that it was not regarded as settled beyond possibility of change that the seat of government would remain in the District of Columbia. When it was established it was about the center of population of the United States, stretching then in a thin line from Maine to Georgia. But when Jefferson suddenly doubled the area of the United States, and the pioneer hosts poured over the Alleghenies to the winning of the West, a movement began for the removal of the National Capital to the West, where the center of population was soon to be. Even in 1814, when the British burned the White House and the Capitol, this movement had become so strong that the people of

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Washington, out of their comparative poverty, contributed largely to provide temporary quarters for the Government, lest, in the excitement of the hour, and under the new argument that the Capital was too near the coast to be safe from foreign attack at any time, the National Government might betake itself to the interior. As the population of the western country increased the difficulty of communication with the Federal District on the extreme eastern edge of the country became more and more practical and impressive. If it had not been for the development of the railroad and the telegraph the argument arising from this difficulty might have become irresistible.

As it was, the advocates of the removal of the Capital from Washington westward, St. Louis being most popular with them, were hopeful until after the Civil War had ended forever any serious consideration of the proposition. In the fires of that great conflict, when the matchless armies of the North and South fought over Washington as the symbol of victory, the National Government was welded to that home beyond the power of anyone to remove it. It was not so much the cost of the national buildings as it was the cost of the national war, especially in the best blood of the country, that made all talk of removal ridiculous after 1865, when the National Capital had become sacred through mighty sacrifices.

All the while the people of Washington did their duty, and more than their duty, in upbuilding and maintaining the nation's city. They taxed themselves to the utmost, they went into debt to meet the inordinate demands upon them. They have never received due credit either from the National Government, or the country at large, for what they did in this respect during the first three-quarters of the last century. Instead of grateful acknowledgements they have had too often sneers and reproaches. Yet though they were not usually given even the encouragement of praise, they kept right on with the same spirit which in every national war

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has made the District contribute more than its quota of volunteers for the army and navy.

The District of Columbia had no general executive government nor was any given it by Congress until 1871, when a full territorial form of government, with a Governor, a Legislature, and a Delegate in Congress, was provided for it. Congress, under the quaint phrase of the Constitution, has the power to "exercise exclusive legislation" over the Federal District, but cannot exercise executive authority. In 1801 it established a judiciary system for the District of Columbia. But for seventy years Washington was governed by a Mayor and Councils, and Georgetown by a Mayor and Councils, while the rest of the territory of the District (after Alexandria with its Mayor and Councils and Alexandria County with its county government had been retroceded to Virginia) had no other executive authority except the levy court.

For a general district government, we are indebted to General Grant, whose victories had saved the national life and had insured the permanence of the National Capital. When he became President he took an interest in the development of the City of Washington and stoutly supported Alexander R. Shepherd, the remarkable young native of Washington who was ambitious to carry out the long-neglected plans of George Washington for magnificent streets and avenues. Through Grant's support and that of Congress, in which Shepherd's political friends then had the majority, and the assistance of other far-seeing and determined men, the territorial form of government was secured from Congress, and under its powers the plow of progress was driven literally in deep furrows along all the principal highways of the city. The Governors, first Henry D. Cooke and then Alexander R. Shepherd, were appointed by President Grant, together with a Board of Public Works, of which Shepherd was the leading spirit, and which did the actual work of improvement. The voters elected the Assembly, the Delegate to Congress and other officers, and by a majority approved the

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Shepherd policy. The cost of it was to be borne as the cost of all similar improvements on a smaller scale had been borne, by the people of Washington.

The work was done in such a way that it could not be undone all over the city, but hurriedly, and therefore roughly and expensively. There was the inevitable protest from many taxpayers who could not see its results for the burdens which it imposed upon them and who, at the same time, were alarmed by the possibilities of ill-effects from universal manhood suffrage in the National Capital. They appealed to Congress, where the political majority in the House was changed, and, although rigid investigation found no fault in Governor Shepherd himself, the improvements were stopped, a change in the system of government was ordered, and for the time being, until a permanent form of government could be carefully framed, a temporary Board of Commissioners exercised executive authority in the District, and Henry T. Blow, of Missouri, William Dennison, of Ohio, and John H. Ketcham, of New York, were appointed for that purpose.

Congress, in preparing the permanent form of government, took into account the long and just complaint that the National Government had neglected the National Capital, together with the protests against the continuance of the electoral franchise, which were strengthened by the evident impracticability of submitting the United States to the taxation of its property or to the appropriation of any of its funds by a vote of the District taxpayers. It became evident that if the United States was to share with the District taxpayers the municipal expenses it would have to exercise exclusively the power of taxation and the power of appropriation. A partnership between the United States and the District of Columbia was entered into on this basis and embodied in the Act of June, 1878, "to provide a permanent form of government," called by the United States Supreme Court the "Constitution of the District of Columbia." This form of government has had twenty-eight years of increas-

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ing and uninterrupted success. Under it not only the City of Washington, but the entire District of Columbia, has remarkably developed and advanced in every way.

In the last quarter of a century the United States, besides erecting new and beautiful buildings of its own and assuming half of the obligation for the Shepherd improvements, has paid half of the municipal expenses of the District of Columbia, except those of the water department, which are paid entirely by the water takers, the National Government getting its water supply free. As the United States owns a little more than half of the land in the National Capital, its share ought to be at least a little more than half of the expenses. But half a loaf is so much better than no bread that the present arrangement was very acceptable to the District taxpayers.

Senator Hoar several years ago pointed out a more excellent way, however, suggesting that, in all equity, the National Government should bear all the expenses of the National Capital over and beyond the returns of what would be regarded as reasonable taxation anywhere else. Under this ideal plan the District taxpayers would contribute fair taxes, and whether they amounted to one-half or one-third of the amount needed the United States would bear the rest of the necessary expenditure. Senator Hoar believed that the great majority of the intelligent people of the United States would approve his plan. He recognized the new interest which the people of the country take in the National Capital and their desire to have it developed and embellished, which has been especially manifest since the celebration of the Centennial of the National Capital on December 12, 1900, when, for twenty-four hours, the National Government took holiday and joined with the citizens of the District in a commemoration which furnished the only news from Washington that day and held the attention of the whole country. Every good American is proud of his capital, and wants to see the Capital in every way worthy of the power and glory of the country.

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The surrender of the suffrage under the permanent form of government of the District of Columbia is generally satisfactory to its people, who realize that they are better off without partisan politics, since the municipal business is not affected by "bosses" or machines, corruption or black-mail, and is under the scrutiny and influence of a public opinion which cannot be deflected by political considerations. All the newspapers are independent, the taxpayers are organized into representative and powerful associations, and criticism and suggestions are quickly heeded by the public servants, who cannot fall back either upon a partisan press or a political machine for protection, but who have every incentive to administer their trust honestly and efficiently. *Justitia omnibus* is the District's motto and its government's rule.

Congress is the legislature of the District of Columbia. Its executive government, under the Act of Congress of June, 1878, is a board of three Commissioners appointed by the President of the United States, two from civil life, always of opposite politics, and one an engineer officer of the Army of high rank, to whom the board intrusts the immediate direction of all engineering and construction work. The Commissioners appoint practically all the other officers and employes of the District government, and all serve under the direction of the Commissioners. The Commissioners have power from Congress to enact municipal legislation in the form of health, police, building, and other regulations. They represent the District before Congress, where the committees dealing with District affairs and making District appropriations confer with them as to all District measures, and in all business with foreign governments and municipalities, or the States, Territories and municipalities of the United States. The President submits to them all bills connected with the District which have passed Congress before he passes upon them.

The Centennial Celebration of the founding of the National Capital held in December, 1900, as has been already

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said, centered the interest of the country upon its Capital for a day, and as a result that interest has been increasing ever since. It was also the occasion for gathering up all the ideas for the improvement of the National Capital that had been presented or that were then forthcoming, and it accelerated the Capital's progress in every direction. The citizens of the District and the citizens of the country were stimulated to new endeavors in its behalf. The Senate Park Commission's plans for the improvement and extension of the park system and the proper location of public buildings, plans which were all the more valuable because they were on the lines of George Washington's plans, were the first tangible outgrowth of that celebration. Although they have never been adopted by either house of Congress, or by any other official body, they have the authority of their merit and the principles back of them. Hence all those most deeply interested in the development of the National Capital have accepted them as in principle authoritative, and most of what has been done since in the field they cover has been done in accordance with them. The railway terminal project, then under consideration with a view to the abolition of grade-crossings and the erection of a union station and the freeing of George Washington's Mall from the servitude of the railway tracks and station at Sixth and B streets, northwest, in the heart of the city, was made to conform to the Park Commission's recommendations. The union station was placed upon Massachusetts avenue, the great east and west boulevard of the northern part of the city, instead of near the Capitol as had been proposed, and thereby Massachusetts avenue was saved and the proper relative distance between the Capitol and the union station established. When within two years that station is completed and the Sixth street station and its appurtenances have been removed from the Mall, one of the most valuable results of the Park Commission's work will appear.

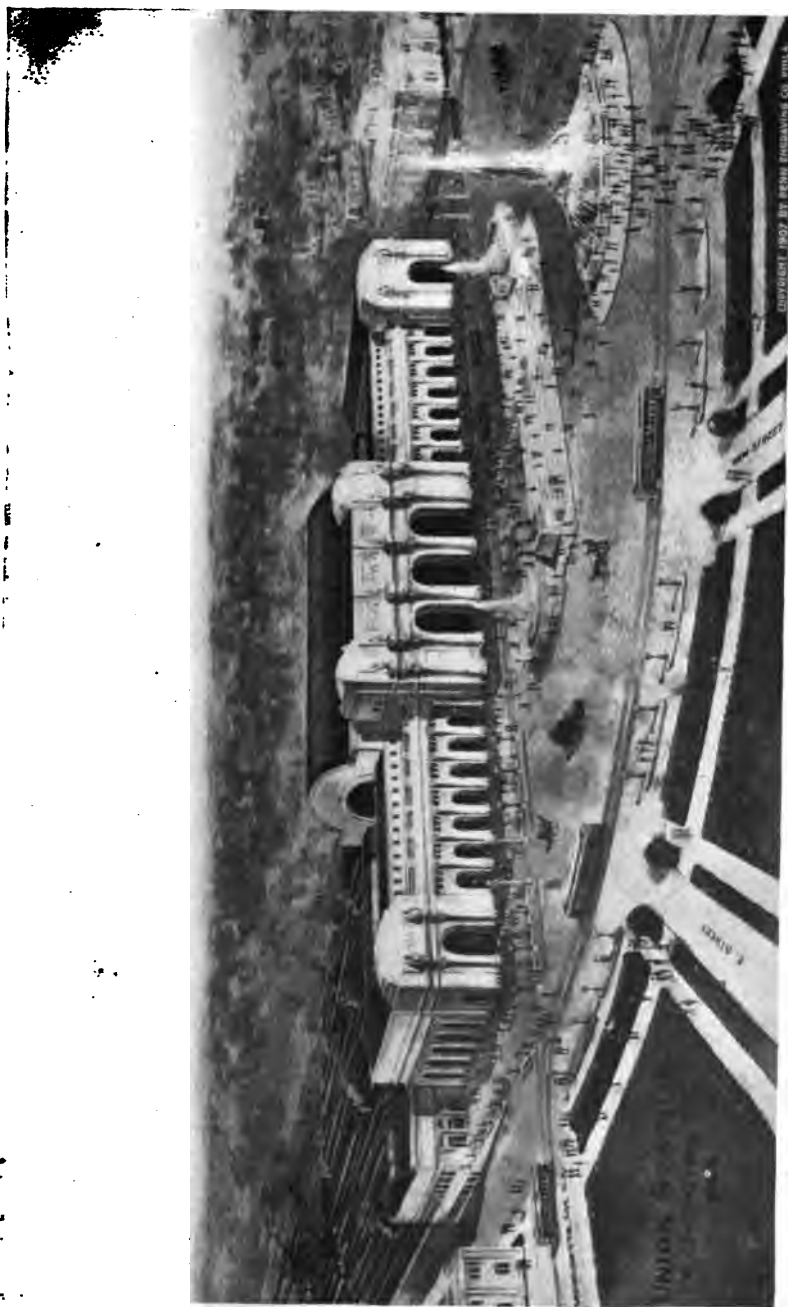
The Commissioners of the District of Columbia, who

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were consulted by the Committees of Congress as to the legislation at all stages, and who had to approve the plans of the railway companies, were in hearty coöperation with the Senate Park Commission throughout. Indeed, the Park Commission carried out the very idea which the Commissioners had had in the Centennial Celebration over which they had presided. It was natural that they saw to it that the new District Government Building should be located and constructed in accordance with the Park Commission plans, and when that building is completed next year it will illustrate the principles of those plans and induce proper compliance with them. The new buildings of the Department of Agriculture and the National Museum and the office buildings for the Senate and the House of Representatives have been located and are being erected in accordance with the Park Commission's recommendations and when completed within the next two years will strengthen the supporters of those plans and serve as examples for the future.

While no extension of the park system has yet been made, it is certain that this will be done, and that when it is done it will be in general accord with the recommendations of the Park Commission. Moreover, the improvement of the water-front and existing parks will also be in general upon the plans laid down in that report. The late Senator McMillan, of Michigan, chairman of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia, who procured from the Senate authority to appoint the Senate Park Commission, and the members of that Commission have the gratitude of all who have seen what has been accomplished in the short space of time since the Commission made its report in 1902.

In general the report sought to maintain the George Washington plan for the City of Washington, and to apply its principles to the portions of the District outside of the City of Washington with respect to the parks and the grouping of public buildings, provision having already been made for extending the streets and avenues of the city through the suburban districts. This was all in accordance



Union Station, Washington, D. C., now in Course of Erection



The Municipal Building for the District of Columbia



Connecticut Avenue Bridge, Washington



Washington from the New Highway Bridge



Boulder Bridge, Rock Creek Park, Washington
Photographs by Leet, Washington, D. C.



Hamilton Park Wading Pool and Recreation Building, Chicago
Courtesy of Board of South Park Commissioners, Chicago.



Swimming Pool in Armour Square, Chicago
Courtesy of Board of South Park Commissioners, Chicago.



River Road, Mississippi Park, Minneapolis
Courtesy of Board of Park Commissioners, Minneapolis.



River Road, Mississippi Park, Minneapolis
Courtesy of Board of Park Commissioners, Minneapolis.



Dr. Parkhurst's Madison Square Presbyterian Church, New York
Note in the upper corner old church with spire, and adaptation of new structure to "sky-scraper" surroundings.

with what had already been done, so that the execution of those plans would be a part of the harmonious development of the National Capital. An unrivaled system of small parks and of trees and street parkings, supplemented by several larger parks, notably the great Rock Creek Park outside of the city proper, was of course the basis of the recommendations as to the park system. The most important addition recommended in the city proper was one which had long been in contemplation, that for converting all the land between Pennsylvania avenue and the Mall into a park filled with public buildings, and that will be the first to be made, although it will probably be made gradually. It ought to be made at once. But the property price of the land is regarded by Congress as too large to permit this, although the land will probably cost more in the future. But by the erection of the District Government Building and all the buildings which Congress is now considering for the State Department and other national government departments, on land on the south side of Pennsylvania avenue, the project will be well commenced. It would be economical for the national government to purchase at once all land required for the necessary proposed park extension and addition. This has been recommended repeatedly by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, but it has been deferred. The people of the District having paid half of the price of Rock Creek Park and other park contributions have done their full duty in this matter, so that the additional land required should be purchased by the national government. Half of its maintenance would undoubtedly be charged to the District, as is the case with half the maintenance of existing parks, in presumed accordance with the general arrangement under the law of 1878 for a division of the municipal expenses between the national government and the District government.

The influence of the plans for the harmonious and beautiful development of the public parks and buildings has been felt by many private citizens in building projects so that the

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private architecture, lawns and gardens are more and more to be conformed to the best principles.

The desire of the people of the District and of all intelligent Americans to have the National Capital what is called a model city in all respects goes far beyond the merely physical. Washington covets model laws as well as parks and buildings and model customs and practises so that it may be not only a beautiful city but the City Beautiful. Accordingly, vigorous efforts have been made by the Commissioners and the citizens with the assistance of friends outside of the District, to secure such legislation and appropriations as would improve the moral conditions of the National Capital. Since 1900, and especially during the late session of Congress, which saw the consummation of so many undertakings of this character, there has been a great improvement in these respects. For example, a juvenile court and probation system, with a separate house of detention, has been set up, an effective compulsory education law has been procured, laws and appropriations for the improvement of so-called alley slums, and to secure better sanitary conditions, modern medical, pharmacy and poison laws and a law regulating employment agencies, have been obtained, together with a steady improvement in the public charities, public schools, public playgrounds, and public library. No better piece of municipal work has been done than that of the Board of Charities in the last five years, in the betterment of the public charity system. The water supply has been improved, with the establishment of a filtration-plant, and an improved sewerage system is well advanced, and other measures for the protection of health have been taken.

There has been also a general and constant improvement of all the housekeeping of the city, and the firm establishment of a voluntary merit system in the civil service of the District Government, although Congress has thus far failed to act upon annual recommendations of the Commissioners that it should be given the protection of law, since

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it is outside of the civil service law applying to the national government departments.

Although so much has been accomplished, much yet remains to be done. Laws which have been secured must be fully executed, and additional laws must be enacted, including, for example, a child labor law. The park extensions and additions, the improvement of the water-front, enlarged fire protection, and suitable provisions for the chronic sick, poor and others whom private hospitals will not care for,—these are some of the special objects for which we must now labor.

There is no interference with the civic and esthetic progress of Washington. It is the interest taken by many of the citizens, including most of the business men, in the enlargement of its commercial facilities and opportunities. It has a considerable commerce and a considerable amount of what is called light manufacturing. It seeks more of both. But the leaders in the movement for this form of success do not wish it to interfere with the civic and esthetic progress of Washington. They believe that it is not incompatible with the efforts making to develop its other interests.

We of Washington claim and expect the constant sympathy and support of all patriotic Americans in all the efforts for the up-building and embellishment of the city which is their capital as much as ours. We cheerfully recognize that much of what has already been done was made possible by the coöperation of Presidents, Senators, and Representatives and other public officials representing the citizens of the country at large, and in a number of instances by the coöperation of private citizens living outside of the District of Columbia. While the National Capital ought not to be a mere experiment ground for reforms, it ought to have the benefit of every successful reform and of every approved improvement in municipal affairs. It, therefore, invites ideas from all quarters and follows with eagerness all municipal developments elsewhere.

As it is under the legislative control of Congress which

now, because it is the National Capital and because the National Government owns more than half of the real estate of the City of Washington, contributes one-half of the municipal expenditures, it looks to the intelligent constituents of Congress to assure their Senators and Representatives that they will support every just and reasonable measure for the improvement of conditions, physical and moral, in the Federal City. For lack of definite information much of the interest felt by the people of the country in their capital is not converted into practical influence. But it is hoped that as the history and influence and general possibilities of the National Capital become better known, the people of the United States will see to it that everything that the nation should do is done for its advancement.

City Making

By Frederick L. Ford, Hartford, Conn.

THOSE who are familiar with the development of our modern cities, fully appreciate the great importance of the subject of city making and the conscientious thought and hard practical work required to solve its many vexatious problems. To attempt to keep up with the details of such work would be an undertaking impossible of accomplishment. There never was a time in the history of America when so much money was being expended for municipal improvements as there is today; and it is encouraging to note that much of this work is being planned by skilled experts far in advance of its actual execution.

As nearly everyone knows, our National Capital has adopted a most elaborate and comprehensive plan, prepared by a commission of experts, which will require many years' time for its completion, and an enormous expenditure. This plan when completed will make Washington City one of the handsomest and grandest cities of the world, the new

mecca for all students seeking the ideal civic center. The magnificent terminal station at the junction of Delaware and Massachusetts avenue is nearing completion, and more than a dozen of public buildings provided as a part of this great scheme, and representing an expenditure of over \$25,000,000, are under construction.

At Cleveland, Ohio, the magnificent grouping plan is making splendid progress. The land on the lake front has already been purchased and a large percentage of the Mall, as well as the blocks at the south end have been acquired. The new federal building is partially erected, and plans for the court house and city hall are nearing completion. Designs for the public library are also under consideration, and an agitation is in progress for a new music hall and other buildings to front upon the Mall. More than \$5,000,000 have already been expended for land, and there is still more to be purchased. Plans have also been approved by the railroad companies for the new union station which is to form the monumental gateway to the city at the northerly end of the Mall. Cleveland is singularly fortunate that new public buildings for the United States Government, the county, and the municipality were required at one and the same time, making a union of the various interests practicable as well as desirable. Like Washington, the city is also fortunate in that the railroad companies were willing to work in harmony with the general plan, and the progress thus far made forcibly illustrates the facility with which such ideal plans can be executed.

St. Louis has plans for a municipal court and public parkway between Thirteenth and Fourteenth streets, and Clark avenue and Locust street quite similar in conception to the Cleveland scheme. The design provides for the grouping of several public buildings about a formally treated mall, and is estimated to cost over \$3,000,000.

Buffalo, a city distinguished for its number of railroads and its vast track mileage within the city limits, and widely known for its inadequate railroad station facilities,

has plans for a great union station between Niagara Square and the Lake Front. The plan provides for the location of public buildings on Court street and Delaware avenue facing a triangular park approach to the station.

Similar projects for the creation of attractive civic centers have been planned for Springfield, Mass.; Hartford and Waterbury, Conn.; Providence, St. Paul, New York City, Denver, San Francisco, Pittsburg, Indianapolis, Columbia, S. C., and many smaller cities.

The tremendous influence being exerted by the agitation for the city beautiful is best illustrated by the great number of cities which are actively enlisted in the cause at the present time. They include all sizes and classes from the smallest to the largest, and from the poorer to the richer ones. Those which start right are the ones which have comprehensive plans made for the development of the entire city even though the designs can be but partially perfected for many years to come. The smaller cities which follow this practice have a distinct advantage because many of the improvements planned can be carried out at a comparatively small cost before the land required has been extensively and expensively developed.

For example, the magnificent boulevard which Philadelphia is to build from the City Hall to Fairmount Park would have been much less expensive if carried out many years ago.

Great fires in cities, though great afflictions, offer great opportunities for the correction of many faults in the original design. The city of Baltimore has taken advantage of the opportunity presented by the great fire, by widening fifteen streets within the burnt district to the extent of about eight acres. Notwithstanding this reduction in the available building area within the district there has been a large increment in the value of the remaining property. The rebuilding of the burnt district in Paterson, N. J., and Waterbury, Conn., are along much more creditable lines than the former work. How fortunate that San Francisco had the

elaborate Burnham report with plans for its beautification ready for a guide to its new and greater development.

Many cities are spending millions to provide adequate supplies of pure water for their citizens and an abundance for fire protection. Others are engaged in the construction of elaborate sewerage systems and sewage disposal plants for preventing the pollution of streams. Plans for preventing flooding nuisances from rivers during the high water stages are engaging the attention of the officials of many afflicted cities. This class of problems is closely associated with the deforestation of the wooded areas upon the head waters of such streams, a subject which the National Civic Association is also interested in.

The City Making Department is also concerned in the laying out and making of city streets, their direction, width, paving, cleaning, etc. The economical lighting of streets with ornamental light poles; the proper construction of street railway tracks in city pavements; the regulation of street railway traffic; the observance of road rules and regulations for automobiles and other vehicles in congested thoroughfares; the treatment of water fronts; the restriction of the heights of buildings, and many other similar questions can well engage the attention of this department.

During the past year three bulletins have been prepared and forwarded to the officers of the association for publication. The first one was upon flooding nuisances and methods of abating them. The second subject treated, "The Removal of Unsightly Over-head Wires," is one in which most cities are deeply interested, and one which all have to contend with at some stage of their development. The third bulletin treated a subject which has been as much neglected in this country as it is prominent in European cities, that of the establishment and maintenance of public comfort stations.

The City Making Department has also collected during the year a large amount of valuable information upon many of the subjects relating to its work. Much of this informa-

tion has been disseminated by correspondence with civic workers in different parts of the country seeking information for local purposes. With a subject as broad as the term "City Making" implies, it seemed, however, that the best course to pursue was to follow in a general way all civic work which comes within the scope of the Department and to confine most of our energies to the preparation of bulletins upon subjects of especial interest to the different cities.

Texas Cities and Their Improvements

By Mrs. William Christian, Houston, Texas

IN all the cities of Texas, large and small, a healthy public sentiment is growing in favor of a "More Beautiful America" as evidenced by clean and artistic surroundings. Many of the newest hamlets have laid out their town-sites with due reference to future growth, planning for public schools, parks, and libraries, and other public buildings, immediately after erecting their tiny depots, and sending out their first advertising regarding their "industrial opportunities."

There is a certain pleasure in living in, and growing up with a pioneer state which must be unknown to most Americans. Our brethren from the far West can join in the statement that the civic workers of the Trans-Mississippi country feel the same thrill of excitement, the throb of quickened curiosity, the tremor of uncertainty as to the result, in watching the growing of our annual crop of cities, as those who "are born amid the established order" do in the growing of "cabbages and kings" (of finance).

Again, just as we sometimes find springing up in our flower-beds some beautiful plant, whose bulb has lain forgotten in the ground, so, in Texas, sometimes we visit a little-known community, or one new-born, to find ourselves

surprised and astonished by the existence of some plant of civic beauty, which was unexpected.

Last May, destiny sent me traveling along some of the branch lines of the great Southern Pacific Railway system; these smaller divisions of the Southern Pacific passed through no large cities in point of population, though most of them were entitled to that designation because of their form of government; they were towns of from 500 to 2,000 population for the most part, though Corpus Christi and Victoria would probably reach 5,000 or 6,000. My first surprise came when the train dashed through a large sugar plantation, where the right-of-way was turned into an avenue of banana trees; the station-house was wreathed in vines, and a start had been made at planting bananas and ferns, along the banks of a sluggish creek, which wended its way through the farm.

We found the section houses and depots along our route all neatly painted, clean, and each with its tiny plot of green lawn or railed-in square, with blooming flowers. I had sent each of the heads of departments of this railroad, Mrs. McCrea's admirable pamphlet on "Railroads and their Improvement." Whether we may "lay the flattering unction" to our souls that the railroad officials read and profited thereby, or whether they "thought it out" themselves, I have not been informed, but the results are there and speak for themselves.

The little town of El Campo, Texas, marks the opening of a new district for rice culture. If ever there was a town which might be excused from considering the park question in the early stages of its growth, this was such an one. Situated on a broad prairie, with an open sweep to the Gulf of Mexico forty miles south, and a vista of three hundred miles northward, surely its citizens might pursue their even way without thought of congested limits urging the purchase of a park. What have they done? Reserved a public park three squares long and two wide, in the heart of their little town; nay, what is more, they have fenced it, and planted avenues of trees and built a band-stand, and uniformed a

volunteer band of young men of the town, and provided for two public evening concerts each week during the summer months. They have laid off their streets evenly and wide. In spite of the protests of some narrow-minded citizens, they built a large, fine, permanent public school building of brick, and placed it away from the business center, where the homes of the future will stand, and the environment of their children will be satisfactory.

Victoria is in this part of the state also, and the marked change in the appearance of this city in the last two years has been the result of the enthusiasm and untiring zeal of one young lady, Miss Genevieve Powers. I still have on file Miss Powers' first letter to me in which she announced the formation of a Civic Department in the Bronte Club, and her election as chairman thereof. "What shall I do first?" was her appeal. "Become a member of the American Civic Association, and draw from the fountain-head of inspiration," was my advice.

First, they had a "cleaning-up day," the town council assisting. Then they took a look at two or three small public squares in the town, only a block or half-block in extent. These were cleaned, trees planted, lawns sowed and mowed, and the school-rooms were adorned with plants.

Then a great Civic Day program was given by the Club in an open session to which the public was invited. A civic letter-box which had been collecting unsigned suggestions in the postoffice for three weeks previous was opened, as were the eyes of the mayor and aldermen at some of the suggestions made.

The town council took the hint. A number of the streets were spread with gravel. Trash cans were placed around. Some new ordinances providing sanitary betterment were passed. Then Miss Powers turned her attention to the children, and a Junior League was organized, which was represented by our youngest delegate aged fourteen years, at the District Federation meeting in Crockett in May.

The ladies of Corpus Christi, headed by Mrs. G. R.

Scott, have worked arduously for the betterment of their town. They have erected a combined pavilion and hall, built on piles extending out in the water from the shore, and furnished it. This is the only social center the town possesses. They give summer night concerts to the citizens. They have beautified their small city park and their latest undertaking, while of some magnitude, will make this seaside town a place of lasting beauty. This is nothing less than the conversion of a shingly bluff, dividing the upper from the lower town into a long terraced esplanade. The ladies are to bear the expense of transforming shingle and sea-shell into grass and flowers, whilst the town authorities have agreed to reserve the ground intact for this purpose.

Austin has recently entered the civic improvement field with the establishment of a civic league and the beautifying of their cemetery as its first object.

San Antonio has made great strides towards civic betterment. Manual training and domestic science and sewing have been placed in the school studies. The school-garden work has been taken up this year, with an instructor, a graduate of our Agricultural and Mechanical College. The women of San Antonio have rather a unique civic feather in their cap. It is to their credit, that, finding the moral tone of the amusements provided at their annual fair, becoming lower each year, they went in a body composed of their most influential women, to the mayor and called a halt. This resulted in a vigorous and searching investigation on the part of the officials and the closing of several "shows." A second lesson has not been needed. Such moral courage might well be followed by other communities.

Dallas and Ft. Worth have not much to record in the way of new effort. In both these cities, a constant sentiment is growing in favor of civic beauty and municipal betterment. Dallas' chief pride this year has been the fifty thousand dollars expended in permanent improvements in Fair Park, where the annual Texas State Fair is held. This park (formerly the old fair grounds) has been acquired by

the city, and all net profits from the fair must be put into permanent improvements of the park. Already a marked advance is noticed. A magnificent main exhibit hall and auditorium of concrete, handsome entrance and administration building and broad paved walks have been built this year, and a large section of the grounds laid out in landscape gardening.

Houston, also, hath done what she could, but not what she ought. The Civic Club has again raised the larger portion of the amount necessary to give free bi-weekly concerts, in the three city parks. The children's play ground has had three times as many children enjoying it this year as were in attendance last summer, an average attendance of sixty being reported. Manual training and domestic science were this year inaugurated in the schools. The City Commission have purchased trash cans for the principal business streets, and have passed ordinances forbidding the scattering of hand bills; one requiring the citizens to screen their cisterns and oil any standing pools to assist in the extermination of the mosquito; a permanent and uniform sidewalk ordinance has been adopted; our weekly civic column in the *Houston Post*, entitled "The City Beautiful," has been kept filled with suggestions and notes of civic work. Many more front fences have disappeared, and probably have been converted into a corresponding number of window-boxes, which have sprung into existence.

Houston also had the pleasure of a visit from our honored president, as did Dallas. In the latter named place, Mr. J. Horace McFarland addressed the National Nurserymen's convention. In Houston, he gave his interesting illustrated lecture, "The Awakening of Harrisburg," to a large and enthusiastic audience in Turner Hall. Mr. McFarland paid Houston the compliment of saying it was the cleanest city he had seen in Texas.

I must also pay tribute to the new superintendent of the electric street railway of Houston in that he has accomplished the enforcement of the anti-expectoration law

absolutely. Our street-cars are now fit to travel in as those of Dallas have been for two years past.

In all our Texas cities we are rejoicing over the success of the united effort of our women and men to get the Juvenile Court movement embodied as a "plank" in the Democratic platform of our state, which practically ensures the passage of the bill by the next legislature. Our friend and co-worker, Mrs. E. P. Turner of Dallas, has organized a club of three hundred members, the Woman's Forum, with departments pledged to many branches of civic and philanthropic effort.

What shall be said of Galveston? Like her grand seawall, the Women's Protective Association and its new-born child, the Junior Protective League, stand as a bulwark against the entrance of disease and dirt into our important port of entry. Even the City Commission never questions their edicts. The accolade of honor was earned in a day of storm and stress, and municipal governments delight to do them honor!

Many inquiries have been made regarding the success of the commission form of city government. As simplifying administrative methods it seems a great improvement upon old ways. The experience of civic workers however, has been, in many cases, that, while they can more readily convert City Commissioners to their plans, they have so very much to do all at once, that they defer action on many vital matters of civic betterment. But we do obtain results enough to encourage us to keep up the struggle, until Texas shall become a group of cities with "the glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome."



Architecture and Civic Progress

By Prof. Frederick M. Mann

Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

ARCHITECTURE is the art of building beautifully. Civic progress I would define as the outward expression in better laws, finer institutions and greater civic beauty of a growing state of enlightenment among the people. Beautiful buildings with their settings, which must be considered as integral parts of every architectural work, are not only the material evidence of but a potent stimulus to good taste; and good taste is an attribute of cultured and refined sensibilities, without which the existence of a high degree of enlightenment is inconceivable.

There is, of course, no such thing as a uniform state of culture, among the people of a community. The highly cultured, less cultured, and the barbarian (as to refinement) must dwell together. The highly cultured feels that he must not only bend his best efforts to protect himself from that which is unpleasant or shocking to his own sensibilities, but he desires to bring broadening influences into the lives of the less fortunate—of his own community particularly. No one will gainsay, I think, that ugliness is degrading and beauty elevating. This is as true with the cultured as with the uncultured. To displace ugliness and enthrone beauty is then vitally our common interest. Not one of us would be willing to say that he has not some elements of the barbarian within himself; we all need elevating influences about us.

Aside from pure religion and patriotism I can think of nothing in a man or in a community of men more elevating or more inspiring than civic pride. The service of every element that will develop and foster it is needed. Civic beauty,—beauty in the material city, is undoubtedly the most effective single instrument that can be made use of toward

this end. Our people are, for the most part, and perhaps more than they should be, absorbed each in his own narrow affairs. They do not in any large proportion seem to find themselves able to devote sufficient time and study to the government and the working institutions of the city to understand and come into close touch with them, even though many desire to do so. On the other hand, the exterior aspect of the city forces itself upon them at all times, in all places, when idle and when at work. Now, however oblivious to our surroundings we may imagine ourselves to be they have the effect upon us whether we are conscious of the effect or not. The eye of the worker wanders for a moment and the aspect of ugliness or beauty has left its impression, and when he leaves his absorbing task and enters the public thoroughfares of the city, no exertion in study or in thought is necessary for the physical aspect of the streets to force itself upon him. He is compelled to become familiar with it. Either its ugliness casts a blight upon him, or its beauty uplifts and stimulates him and makes him proud to feel himself a part of it. What an uplift the Greek must have felt as he approached the Acropolis! and how the pride of *citizenship* must have stirred within the Roman as he passed through the public places of the Eternal City and entered the great Forum with all its wonders of architecture! The part architecture may play in civic progress is then not only toward the cultivation of public taste, but the development and stimulation of civic pride.

The art of architecture seems today to be passing through a chaotic state. We are, however, undoubtedly in a period of growth and development. There seems to me to exist a condition of *awakening*. The question is, how can we take advantage of this condition and press architecture into full service as an agent for civic progress. How can we raise it from a passive position as a follower of material prosperity, where its growth must necessarily be erratic, if not slow, to the status of a positive instrument

for civic advancement. In answer to this question, I would name two or three directions in which improvement is possible; first, in the architects; second, in the individual builder; and third, in improved building regulations. Architects must *all* seek proper training; the individual who has control of building enterprises must seek a broadly intelligent conception of the public nature of works of architecture; finally, carefully considered regulations must be enacted, not only governing architectural design in individual buildings, but what is more important, the relation of buildings to each other.

A consideration of the first point, the training of the architect, discloses some unsatisfactory aspects of this question and partially explains the existence of architectural monstrosities along some of the streets of our cities. While high training of the architect would seem to be a foregone conclusion, the law of demand and supply is the regulating influence in the profession of architecture as in all other callings. While clients are satisfied with mediocrity, or even ugliness, there is little incentive to the young architect to spend costly years in arduous training. This forms the most serious complication in the architectural situation of today. Our architects' offices are filled with young men whose education has ended in the common schools. After a few years there with the knowledge covering not much more than a few simple methods of construction they begin the farce of architectural practice, possessing neither the elements of a liberal education, nor even an awakened taste, and in almost absolute ignorance of architecture as one of the noblest of the fine arts. To go into this important matter more in detail, there are in the United States, according to a count which I have made in a business directory, about five thousand practitioners calling themselves architects. Perhaps three thousand of these have begun practice within the last decade. American schools of architecture are now graduating about one hundred men each year. Since the number has been so large only during the past three or four

years, it would be a safe assumption, I think, to say that the total number of graduates in the whole decade has not exceeded seven hundred and fifty. While many of these eventually found their way into other callings the total number has probably been maintained by the incoming of foreign trained men. Among the architects who began practice more than ten years ago the proportion of schooled men is yet smaller. It will, therefore, be a conservative statement to say that of all the architects of the country at most only seven hundred and fifty in three thousand, or one in four have had a systematic training for the profession they are practicing. While no one would contend that all the schooled men do creditable work, nor that all unschooled men do uniformly poor work, it is clear that too large a proportion of the men who design the buildings to beautify or to mar our cities are men who have had little or no opportunity to gain a liberal education, to learn the theory of architecture or to train systematically the artistic gifts with which nature endowed them. There are, however, signs of improvement, for, keeping pace with the existing growth of taste and appreciation of architecture there is a perceptibly increasing number of educated and liberally trained men in the ranks of the profession, and there is also an active campaign among the more enlightened of the profession for the better training of the younger generation. Although these are hopeful conditions, the public should add a much wider accelerating influence than it exerts at present by constantly demanding better and yet better design in all classes of buildings.

This leads to the consideration of the position in the advancement of architecture of those who have control of building enterprises. The right of the individual to exclusive control over his building operations ends with the building's interior arrangement and its utilitarian function. In its exterior expression—of beauty or of ugliness—the public has a rightful share. Each work of architecture is a lasting monument and a public one in the sense that one of

its functions is to adorn a public thoroughfare. It is destined to become a perpetual elevating influence if beautiful, a constant debasing influence and menace to public taste if ugly. Hence in his building enterprise the individual incurs a grave responsibility, and to the public, one demanding serious consideration, not only by the individual himself but by the public as well that it may safeguard good taste and stimulate the pride of the people in their city.

The third point for consideration is the public regulation of architecture. Architecture in the sense of beautiful building is a matter in which, as I have pointed out, the public is deeply concerned. In no other art or calling is this so true. Paintings and sculpture are hidden from public view, and familiarity with their works is a matter of individual choice. Music is also for the few and under the control of the individual. In the practice of medicine or the practice of law each separate case affects scarcely more than the individuals concerned; but the work of the architect is enduring and none can escape its influence. A wise regulation of architectural productions would then seem desirable, extending as far as it can be made effective. Laws regulating the height of buildings are to be found even in the Roman Code. The requirement of a uniform height and a fixed cornice line for contiguous buildings such as exists in the city of Paris today is even better. In the less crowded residence section a fixed building line is nearly always desirable.

The question of architectural design is, however, a matter so indefinite and so intangible that there seem to be few regulations concerning it that can be clearly defined by law. The impossibility of direct control by definite laws should bring about the establishment of a properly qualified commission somewhat similar to those in two or three of our cities, notably New York; and such commission should be a recognized institution in every municipality. Their powers should, by all means, include authority to pass upon the design of every proposed building without exception.

Cities already regulate the safety and sanitation of all buildings; their design as well should be a matter of careful regulation. The fancy of the uncultured individual certainly should not be allowed riotous caprice in this direction.

On the other hand, the man of cultured taste, being less confident of the competence of his own judgment, would recognize at once the possibilities inherent in this fully qualified and wisely chosen body whose powers should extend to embrace not only individual designs but the more momentous question of the larger relations of buildings to each other and the formulation of general and sectional schemes of architectural treatment.

Under the head of public regulations comes the question of licensing architects about which much discussion has existed, within the ranks of the profession. Safety and sanitation of buildings, as I have said, are already safeguarded by law with fair efficiency. The improvement of design, therefore, becomes the main consideration affected by such a system as this.

The more efficient method of dealing with architectural design would seem to be the direct control of the design rather than control of the designer. Even were it possible, in the practice of a fine art, to set up a standard by which the diverse personalities and temperaments of art workers could be measured, and therein lies the great difficulty of this system, individual caprice would still be left to run riot and if we are to bring a sense of unity, of dignity and impressiveness into the streets of our cities, we must not thus continue to allow the parts to govern the whole. This is not a good principle of art production and has never yet resulted in any worthy work of art either small or large. If we cannot at once bring about the competent direct control of design directly, and I admit this to be difficult at present, we may at least bend our efforts toward qualification of the designer. I therefore believe in the licensing system at the present time and under present conditions.

A paper on architecture and civic progress of this nature

would not be complete without some allusion to the encouraging, hopeful and widespread movement for civic enlightenment. Not only do these hopeful signs show themselves in such well-known examples as Washington, Cleveland, Buffalo and other large cities, but in many smaller cities throughout the land. It is a splendid movement indicative of growing taste, growing civic ideals and civic pride. Let the beauty of the civic center be extended to embrace a beautiful city. The elevating influences that reflect from the beautiful city will result with absolute certainty in a life of growing beauty within the citizens.

Civic Beauty and Civic Safety

By Fielding J. Stilson

Board of Education, Los Angeles, Cal.

THERE is probably no subject which relates to city life that is as comprehensive as "Civic Beauty and Civic Safety." It concerns both the material and physical side, as well as the population of the city. It treats of architecture, of the width of streets; of how the former may be developed and the latter may be planned and used; whether the buildings in the business district shall be of such a height, and in the residence district whether the houses shall be set back so many feet from the sidewalk. The consideration of the kind or kinds of material which should or should not be used in the construction of all houses within the limits of the city, is a branch of the subject in question which in itself is exhaustive.

I firmly believe that in a very few years, every well-governed city will have ordinances both regulating the height of buildings and prescribing the material to be used in the construction of the same. Why should the individual or a corporation having erected a magnificent office construc-

tion of so-called "fire-proof" structure, have it possibly menaced by the building of an adjoining structure of flimsy material? Here the question may be asked, "Would not such ordinances tread upon individual rights of property?" Admit that it would. Has any individual in this enlightened and progressive period the right to create anything which may be a menace to human life? From the numerous casualties which occur in the cities of this country at the present time, one must acknowledge that the individual practically does as he pleases in the construction of his private property.

I know of a theater which was lately rebuilt in a certain Western city. As the work progressed, it was found that the supporting joists of the first floor were so badly worn, that had the first-night audience risen en masse in admiration of some artist, the floor and balcony would have undoubtedly collapsed and precipitated all into the basement. I would especially urge that the city councils everywhere should pass, and cause to be enforced, proper ordinances making it obligatory upon all builders to use such construction and material as to increase and protect the safety of human life.

During the past year there occurred on the Pacific Coast, one of the most, if not the most terrible of calamities of the present decade. The catastrophe of San Francisco was so complete that words almost fail to describe the destruction and desolation. It is a well-known fact that nearly three-fourths of this once magnificent city was practically destroyed. Perhaps the most important reason that the remainder of the city was saved was due to the width of that magnificent boulevard, Van Ness avenue, but even there the fire leaped over and caused some destruction in some few places. When the writer viewed San Francisco after the calamity, he was absolutely convinced that the safety of a city could be greatly increased if it had two wide boulevards running at right angles, of at least 150 feet in width. Of course it is a very difficult thing to take any one of our

modern cities and attempt to widen to a sufficient degree the streets in the business center. It would be an extremely costly venture. But I would urge that in the laying out of new towns or villages, that at least two streets, running at right angles be arranged for. It does not take long, under the present system of building to develop a town into a city, and if provision was made as I have indicated above, the burning of a city would not occur as frequently as at the present time.

Nearly every city has a park system. In many instances the parks are placed at one side of the city. If the park system could be so arranged by the use of the two boulevards mentioned it would serve a double purpose; first, cause a better fire protection, and second, by its position permit people to enjoy it in their daily vocations. Such boulevards could be adorned with statues and could be maintained by placing a certain portion of the expense on the abutting property and charging the balance to the city as a whole. Arrangements for the trolley and the subway could be made in the center of such boulevards, thus reducing the cause of accident which at this time is so prominent in the life of our larger cities.

During the past three months, there has been sitting in the city of Los Angeles a commission appointed by three of the principal municipal bodies for the purpose of ascertaining the cause of the numerous trolley accidents which have occurred in and near that city. As a member of that commission, I had the privilege of investigating some of the methods used in the management of our trolley systems. As a result of these inquiries certain recommendations have been made, which I believe if carried out would greatly increase the safety of the population of the city, and I therefore will quote from the report as it was finally presented:

Believing that the trolley systems of this country are vital to its development, and recognizing the complicated and difficult character of the problems that must be worked

out, not only as to the safety of human life, but also as to the relations of the utility corporations and the city, we would recommend that council establish by ordinance a department of transportation under the board of public works.

This feature, to my mind, is probably one of the most important first steps to be taken in the regulation of street-car speed, equipment, and maintenance as it concerns human life. There must and should be in every city, a board with proper authority, which should make a special study of the subject, and enforce all ordinances pertaining to the matter in question. The board should employ railroad men of ripe experience to accomplish the work. One of the principal causes for the numerous accidents which daily occur in the large cities, is undoubtedly due to the extreme speed maintained by the trolley systems. The companies invariably reply to this statement, that the public demand high speed. I am convinced that the companies beg the question when they throw the burden on the public. It is true that the public desire to reach a given point as soon as possible, but not at the expense of their lives. What the general public really demands is a more frequent service at a slower speed, which, of course, is an additional expense to the railroad corporations. Again quoting the words of the commission when it speaks of increased wages:

The vital point in this discussion is the pay of the motormen. Under the present system, here and elsewhere, the motormen and conductors receive exactly the same pay. This seems to us, like many other things in the system, to hark back to the days when the motorman was a mule driver. His responsibility then was insignificant, and the conductor, in fact, drew a higher wage than he. With the advent of the cable his pay rose to equal that of the conductor, and they both advanced in unison until the present figures were reached under electricity.

It would therefore follow from this convincing evidence that evidently the street car managers themselves do not really appreciate the burden of responsibility that rests on their shoulders when they employ cheap labor, and consequently inexperienced men. The report further states:

We are at a loss to understand the distinction as to responsibility of service between the work of the motorman, running a car at sixty miles an hour carrying fifty passengers, and a locomotive engineer, although we recognize, of course, that it is customary and necessary to exact a much longer period of instruction and a higher degree of technical skill from the engineer.

This, to my mind, is one of the most vital points in the question of the safety of the traveling public. A man is placed, in many instances, on the trolley systems of our country after a few weeks of experience, and given the responsibility of thousands of precious lives. Surely this is almost a crime, and I believe that very drastic legislation should be enacted on this particular point. Nearly every town or city of any size at the present time enjoys the benefits of the trolley system. Its advantages are so many that any disposition to check the building of electric lines would be ridiculous, but, on the other hand, the regulation of the systems, as it affects the safety of the patrons, should be surrounded with every device and rule which will tend to eliminate the numerous street-car accidents.

The automobile and motor cycle are becoming exceedingly popular and necessary methods of transportation, and there should also be regulations of the most pronounced severity against the running of either of these vehicles at a high speed through the populous parts of the city. The speed mania is a disease which is rapidly growing on the American people. The man who runs an automobile at a certain speed for a certain time, soon becomes dissatisfied, and usually secures a machine of higher power. The average pedestrian who is narrowly missed by the miniature locomotive warmly condemns the driver of the machine, but, put him at the wheel, or give him control of the throttle, and he too will develop the desire for reckless speed. In other words, the American people are living at a tremendous pace. Nearly everything is done quickly, but not always satisfactorily. Therefore, city councils cannot be too careful in the passing of ordinances which will protect the pub-

lic from all methods of transportation, which when not properly handled are a menace to human life.

Civic beauty and civic safety go hand in hand in the development of our municipalities. You can have the one without the other and vice versa, but the ideal city of the twentieth century is going to be one which contains both of these elements. As I stated in the beginning of this paper, the subject is a very extensive one, and it would be a task to go into all of the details that relate to civic beauty and civic safety. I would therefore say that civic beauty entails the kinds of architecture, the width of streets, the arrangements of parks, and the manner in which they are maintained. Civic safety includes the regulation and methods of urban transportation, the strict enforcement of ordinances relating to the erection and construction of buildings, and the proper policing of a city so that the evil elements may be held well in check. Lastly, the responsibility rests on the shoulders of the public for the accomplishment of these ends. Until the public at large or even a very small minority demands civic beauty and civic safety, the present conditions which exist in our municipalities will continue to do so. Only by united effort can work be accomplished. The American Civic Association is today spreading the gospel throughout the land for a better city life. The desired reforms can only be obtained by the building up of a powerful branch of this association in every large city of the United States. I would venture the opinion that if the magnificent work that has been carried on by this association continues, that it will not be many years before our cities will greatly change for the better in "Civic Beauty and Civic Safety."



Civic Activities of Social Settlements

By Graham Romeyn Taylor

IN discussing the civic activities of the social settlements, it is wise to keep constantly in mind the main purpose of the settlement movement. Indeed this is necessary to an intelligent understanding of settlement influence in civic affairs. Those who glory in the establishment of organizations to accomplish this or that civic purpose, or look to statistics to show results attained, are likely to be disappointed when they turn to the settlements, and by their disappointment they betoken their misunderstanding of the social settlement motive.

The settlement exists not to add organization to organization. The people who constitute a settlement—and the personal relation is the key to the matter—endeavor to enter into the life of the neighborhood they choose to live in, and that of the city at large. Their desire is to work as far as may be possible through existing agencies and institutions, to bring about better city conditions. And if they start new activities, their desire is to abandon them as soon as the municipality, in the exercise of its various functions can make them a part of the school system, park service, or other means of serving human needs.

The personal service of settlement residents on school and health boards, in the direction of municipal play-grounds, as trustees of state and city institutions, as probation officers of juvenile courts, as secretaries and members of city and state commissions, and in other official capacities, shows the many ways in which these people are bringing to bear the knowledge gained through residence in city centers where dwell the less privileged. In fact extension of the social and neighborhood uses of public school buildings and recreation centers in small parks, is leading to an expression of the settlement spirit, not through the building of settlement houses, but in taking up residence near these public build-

ings and centers to help in putting them to the widest and wisest use.

The writer recently sent a questionnaire to a number of representative settlement residents throughout the country. One reply from New York puts the case so concisely, that it is here quoted: "The fact is," said she, "that we are all involved in every important civic interest. It seems more and more to be the settlement's chief function to furnish information in regard to local conditions, and then coöperate with other organizations, in effecting changes." Another reply tells of settlement activity in urging a city—Cleveland—to the expenditure of \$170,000 for a new neighborhood recreation center, such as Chicago has recently established.

To enumerate similar cases of civic coöperation on the part of the settlement, is impossible in the brief space allotted. There is opportunity, however, to mention one other typical instance. The pressure which settlement residents have been able to exert through their knowledge of the facts, bore fruit in the great campaign waged during the past year to make our National Capital a better city in which to live. Settlement investigation turned the searchlight on miserable housing conditions and blind alleys. In conjunction with other civic organizations settlement folk secured this year the passage of the "Unsanitary Dwellings" bill, which has hung fire for nine years, and which will enable the city to tear down some of the ramshackle hovels. Instances of direct settlement activity in civic affairs, may perhaps be drawn with the greatest interest from the work with children, to which attention was devoted at the last convention of the American Civic Association.

The great hope for the future city is in the boys and girls of today. A reply sent from a Boston settlement, dwells upon this in the following words: "The settlements are steadily and noiselessly training the future anti-grafters, the foes of civic corruption in its own breeding ground. Not that all settlements will turn out saints—let us hope not—but the presumption is in favor of the settlement boy or girl,

who has a constant chance of seeing that to be a *good* citizen, should mean being *good for something*."

An outworking of this principle is reported from Cleveland. A settlement in that city last summer drew together no less than 500 boys and girls from its neighborhood into a "Progress City." The city wards were twelve in number, and were composed of different industries and businesses, in which the children chose to work. Ward 1 was carpentry; ward 2 painting; and so on through printing, brass hammering, cooking, sewing, millinery, postal service. Examples of how this plan resulted in useful work and civic training, are seen in the fact that the carpentry department repaired the playground fence and made new apparatus, benches and cupboard; the street cleaning department, not only kept the playground free from paper and other rubbish, but now and then cleaned public streets in the neighborhood.

This tendency to arouse civic interest in children by appealing to things that directly affect them is well indicated by the progress of "cleaning up day" in Chicago, when one settlement interested 1,000 children in street and alley cleaning. It wondered why that interest soon flagged. This year it found that more lively and permanent interest was aroused by getting the children to care for their playground and their own back yards.

Helpful coöperation has been sustained between the Civic Association and Settlements. The vice-president for the Social Settlement Department has had large correspondence with settlements upon civic matters. An effort was made, moreover, to bring them into affiliation with the American Civic Association by means of a circular letter, setting forth the mutual advantages of membership in a national body devoted to the improvement of city conditions. As shown by the replies received, no inconsiderable interest was aroused and it is hoped that this mutually advantageous coöperation may be increased in the future.

What One Association Did

By Frederic A. Whiting

FRAMINGHAM, a beautiful town of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, has a population of about twelve thousand souls. Like nearly all self-respecting New England towns it has had its Village Improvement Society almost ever since the discovery of brooms and flower seeds—cleanliness and beauty being the natural possessions of the sex—woman being always at the foot and crown of all village improvement beginnings. Like nearly all improvement societies, that at Framingham struggled through its varied assortment of ups and downs—especially the downs! It was a case of intermittent fever—hot enthusiasm today and the chill of indifference tomorrow.

Out of this mingling of alternate spasm and inertia, was evolved hardly more than two years ago the present Framingham Improvement Association. The more zealous members of the parent society, and several business men who were in the throes of that wonderful civic awakening now so splendidly in evidence all over the land, and which is the primal reason for a great convention, met and organized the present association, which was duly incorporated under the laws of the commonwealth, with power to hold real-estate, act as trustees, receive bequests—(a feature that has not kept us very busy as yet!) and in fact make our organization legally permanent, with power to carry on the work in a broad and effective way.

The several committees of our association are as follows: Finance, Public Grounds and Streets, Membership, Railroads, Entertainments, Editorial or Publicity. In appointing committees we have learned to “make the punishment fit the crime;” to avoid misfits; to avoid merely ornamental members with only names that contribute no effort and are not worth a nickel to the work-a-day purpose of any working association. And it may be said by way of paren-

thesis that even a well-appointed committee, with a real desire to do things, rarely gets anywhere unless the chairman has the gift of initiative. Someone has said that all the world's great prizes go to initiative—that is, to the faculty for seeing for one's self what should be done—of doing it without suggestion. Usually a whole committee or an entire society hold back, waiting for the man or woman with initiative to point the way.

Our association was at the outset distrusted by some who fancied the word "Civic" might cloak something political. Some thought that our avowed purpose, "To aid in perpetuating the higher interests of Framingham," was wandering far afield from the usual confines of "village improvement" which a few dear souls thought should find expression only in flower beds and tasteful bits of lawn.

However, we began sanely, and it may be an encouragement to make brief mention of some of the results actually brought to pass—only little things to be sure, but then it is currently reported that even "the mighty ocean" is made up of "little drops of water"—and so the small things we have accomplished may lead to greater things by scattering our handful of seed broadcast.

Shortly after our organization (surely not because of it!) one of our most beautiful church spires was struck by lightning; and to disprove the old saying, the lightning struck in exactly the same place a week later. This spire was architecturally unique, after designs of Sir Christopher Wren; but there was a strong influence bent on "modernizing" it. Mainly through the earnest effort of the Editorial Committee this desecration was prevented and the spire restored in all its original beauty.

Do church interiors come within the scope of civic improvement? We thought so, and after viewing one upon which a prodigal parish had wasted its substance in riotous decoration, we were partly instrumental in its reformation and transformation from gaudiness to paths of sobriety and sincerity.

The High School grounds were well adapted to the requirements of a poultry yard, but after some persistent and possibly annoying publicity, the grounds were ploughed and planted, a driveway laid out and a velvety grass plot secured. And now the members of the School Committee are among our warmest supporters. In fact the last report of the committee devoted a page especially to the subject of making the school grounds beautiful. All exactly in line with what our association has been pleading for.

As a recognition of our civic influence, the South Framingham Board of Trade has appointed a Village Improvement Committee to look after the "out-door art" of the south end of the town. At a town meeting attended by about 1,500 citizens, it was voted to appoint a Park Commission, and the president of our Improvement Association was made the chairman. The Boston and Worcester Street Railway, finding the influence of our association essential to securing a re-location of its tracks through the Center village, appealed to our president. A committee appointed by him consulted with the railway people. Two public hearings were called in order to discover what would content our association before again petitioning the Board of Selectmen.

I think I may safely claim that this is the first instance on record where an improvement association has been appealed to by a great and successful railway corporation for coöperation, and it seems as though this one example is a splendid tribute to the power for good to the community, that lies behind the simple title "Civic Improvement."

The measure of success with any improvement society hinges less on opportunity than on intelligent consecration to the work itself. In truth there is never a dearth of opportunity—but it is not sending out petitions to be discovered and made use of! That only depends upon initiative, as has been already suggested.

The Framingham Gas Company is located at South Framingham. Having decided to extend its pipes, etc., to the center village, its first act was to recognize the vitality and

influence of our Improvement Association by requesting us to appoint a committee to dictate where and how the pipes should be laid, in order to avoid all risk of injury to shade trees along the roadsides. Our editorial committee has been tireless in its criticisms in the local press, of the injury to our beautiful elms and maples, from leaking gas pipes below, ruthless wiring above, and the butchery of the pruner seeking to accommodate the demands of electricity "in all its branches." Does publicity pay? Well, here is a concrete example as evidence that it does—and the dividends are not deferred.

The official business of the town being now conducted almost entirely at the south end, leaves our fine old town hall of only occasional practical use to the town. It is a substantial building of Colonial architecture, most attractively situated at one end of our fine old common. From partial disuse it has been neglected and needs a substantial outlay for repairs and alterations. It is from association, environment and location ideally adapted to use as a community center. The one great effort of our association has been to have the town make the improvement association the custodian of the building for the purpose of making such changes in its exterior and its surroundings, and in the inner arrangement, as shall fit it perfectly for the objects in view. The town has almost unanimously voted to transfer the building to the Improvement Association, under a ten-years lease at a merely nominal charge, and this lease has just been duly executed. Already more than \$1,500 is pledged by our members and others, toward the changes to be made, and a beautiful and convenient community center is assured, with a large assembly room for theatricals, lectures, or social gatherings, club rooms, dining room and kitchen; in fact a complete center for the improving and strengthening of our social and educational life. Up to today this must be considered the climax of our effort.



**Town Hall, Framingham, Massachusetts
Remodeled by the Civic Improvement Association as a Community Center.**



A Cabin Built at a Cost of Sixty Dollars in a Pennsylvania Camp for Consumptives.



**Milk and Eggs at 10 A. M. in a Pennsylvania Consumptive Camp
*Courtesy of "Forest Leaves."***

Pennsylvania Forestry and Camps for Consumptives

By J. T. Rothrock, M. D.

PENNSYLVANIA holds at present the unique position among all other States of having large State forestry reservations, a State School of Forestry devoted exclusively to training young men for its forest service, liberal forest laws which allow of improvement cuttings as well as improvement plantings, and finally a camp for consumptives, into which our ailing citizens may go, if they cannot, from want of funds, go to other more expensive health resorts. All of these features have grown into our forestry work, become a part of it, and I may add, all are now in successful operation. It is this combination which makes the position of Pennsylvania unique in the sisterhood of States.

It is impossible at present to say exactly how many of our citizens are in the early stages of tuberculosis and could be restored to reasonable health under proper conditions, but who now seem likely to speedily disappear from the living list. I should undoubtedly be within limits, if I were to say ten thousand. I do not here include those hopeless cases whose disease creates a public danger and which should therefore be isolated, or those who are receiving treatment in other institutions,—but allude only to those who are entitled to treatment which they do not receive.

How is this great problem to be met? Is care of the indigent consumptive a function of State government? In the case of the insane we have come to regard state care as a measure of public safety, to say nothing of humanity. Yet as a matter of fact, the unguarded consumptives are probably more dangerous to the community than the insane persons who are now under state care would be if liberated. The latter would be restrained to a certain extent by friends, whereas the public is seldom so guarded against the con-

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sumptives, who, in all directions, are scattering the germs of disease.

In Pennsylvania, the appropriation already made for support of charities about equals the sum expended for public instruction, and the two together consume by far the largest part of the State revenue. Yet with all this enormous outlay there are more of our needy who are entitled to state help unprovided for, than at present cared for. It is therefore quite impossible at the present cost per capita to care for all who seem to be entitled to State care. The State must either care for all or for none, for it cannot discriminate in favor of a portion and against the remainder. Clearly we are driven to seek some more economical but efficient system, than we have in operation at present. I am glad to be able to report favorably upon a method which we have had in successful operation for four years, and which has given surprisingly good results, at a minimum cost.

In 1902, a party of gentlemen, some in search of health and some of pleasure, camped in a mountain valley four miles back from Mont Alto in Franklin County, Pennsylvania. The altitude of the place is about 1,650 feet above tide. The question was raised, why is it necessary to send our consumptives to Colorado, or anywhere out of our own State for restoration to health? Right where we camped was elevation enough to ensure relief from the summer heat and not so great an altitude as to cause a subarctic climate in winter. The air certainly was pure, for there was nothing to contaminate it and we were in the heart of a forest reservation of 40,000 acres. The water came from mountain springs.

It was a germ thought, which speedily sprouted. That fall two tents, each occupied by a consumptive, were there. The patients did remarkably well and remained until late in the season. The following year ten plain board cabins were erected. These were of the simplest possible character. They were each ten feet square, raised off of the ground, of a double floor and sides of a single thickness of boards,

with narrow strips over the places where the edges of the boards met. The inside was lined with sheathing paper and the roof covered with ordinary tar paper. Each cabin had two windows. The furniture consisted of a wood stove for heat and an oil stove for cooking, a bed and a chair. All the other furniture, and the bedding, was furnished by the camp inmates. This was certainly a most modest start. It involved no expense to the State, for the money was given by some charitable ladies, and the campers furnished their own food. We simply gave the patients leave to come out into the woods, by providing shelter, air and water. It was a return to primitive life; a chance for the elements to prove that they could cure the disease which had longest and most successfully baffled nurses, doctors and pharmacists.

This camp in itself is a very small matter, but the principal stage, became an assured success of so pronounced a character that the Legislature of 1904 made an appropriation of ten thousand dollars for enlarging the work upon the same lines.

This camp in itself is a very small matter, but the principle involved is of immense and far-reaching importance. Its fame has spread to other, and sometimes to distant states. It has opened the way to a cheap charity, which will embrace thousands against whom hospitals have been closed, and best of all it invites into the open air many in the early stages of tuberculosis at the time when the prospect of cure is brightest. This aspect of the case is the one which enters upon the field of the American Civic Association, for it has to do with the betterment of almost every condition of life. It restores the invalid to health, and makes him a bread winner instead of a bread consumer. It removes disease from the family of the afflicted, where it would probably become a focus of infection to those who would thus be charges upon the bounty of the community and upon the taxables of the district. It takes him off of the street where he was sowing the seeds of disease broadcast,—and threat-

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ening your family and mine. It educates him in the best methods of living, and initiates him in the ways of prolonging his own life after he has left our care.

In all this there is a message for you. Has your State no region in which such a system may be inaugurated? Tuberculosis may be cured almost anywhere, even in our congested cities, provided one uses to the best advantage the means at hand: fresh air and food. Hence I infer any state can furnish more or less desirable sites for such colonies. It costs something less, however, than any other plan proposed, and bear in mind, if you will, that whether you cure these whose poverty appeals to your generosity, or whether you support them in hospitals or county homes and finally lay them to rest in a plain coffin, you must and do ultimately bear the expense. It is cheaper to cure them and restore them to the ranks of productive citizenship, than to board and bury them. Besides this it is humane, Christ-like to restore them. You are their "keepers."

Ever since the anti-tuberculosis crusade assumed its present form, thoughtful people have asked what are we to do with those in whom the disease has been arrested but not eradicated? Will it not return if the patient goes back to the conditions under which the disease first appeared? This is a most important and most vital question. Probably the disease would again become active under such conditions, for the simple reason that like causes usually produce like results. The cured consumptive must choose the form of life which promises the best results. He may desire to be a professional man, but his health may require him to be a farmer. There is no real hardship in this, which is peculiar to the consumptive. Are not the majority of civilized men obliged to relinquish the life to which they aspire and adopt the one which necessity fixes upon them?

The question remains, what are we to do with the consumptive in whom the disease has been arrested, but whose financial condition demands that he must still be cared for until he is able to return to his home? In my own State

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I believe a wide reaching economical system is possible, by which most if not all of such people may be provided for. Pennsylvania, as already intimated, has nearly a million acres of forest reservation land. Most of it must be replanted in young trees. To do this work not less than a billion seedlings must be raised and transplanted into the ground where they are to grow. It would require a large force of men to raise and transplant annually a million trees. Even if this were done the task of reforesting the State would require a thousand years. Work so slowly done would fail utterly to meet the economic exigencies which demand for the prosperity of the Commonwealth that all of our rocky water sheds should be devoted to the growth of timber. It would be but a drop in the bucket if the State transplanted annually four million forest seedlings. That would simply cover four thousand acres, or six and one-fourth square miles. I have gone into this detail to make clear how much work is to be done and how large a force it would require to do it.

But little of the labor required in raising and transplanting seedlings is of a hard or exhausting character. Most of it is very light labor. It is all out of doors. And so far as my own State is concerned, it would be in our health belt where the air is purest. Life under such conditions would, for the convalescent consumptive, be more desirable in every way than life on a farm, and I believe that it would also be safe for the community. In addition to this, willow culture and the manufacture of baskets and other wicker work could be extensively conducted. Small articles of rustic work would furnish an endless opportunity for those who had a constructive turn.

I believe that there is no State in this Union where the condition of the consumptive citizen might not be improved if it were made possible to change an indoor for an outdoor life.

THE FORESTRY SCHOOL.

No sooner had Pennsylvania commenced to acquire forest land than the question arose, what is to be done with it? At the outset we discovered that we had no men trained to forestry work. We could simply do nothing. The energies of the American woodsman had been wholly directed to the destruction of timber. He was of all men the last one to begin the work of reconstruction. It was evident that we must train our own men or import foresters from abroad. We naturally chose to train our men. Leading educational institutions of the State were appealed to to begin the work. It soon became evident that no help of a practical character was to be expected from existing schools in our State. The Commissioner of Forestry, backed by his colleagues of the Commission, opened in a very modest way a Forestry School at Mont Alto. Its original purpose was to train the lowest grade of foresters, namely, rangers. We widened our plan year after year until we now train foresters equal in worth to those of any Forestry School in the land.

Forestry is a profession. Its plans must look ahead for a whole century. They should be first well considered, and then remain practically unaltered. This reason alone is sufficient to explain why State Forestry should never become subject to political control. Its officers should be first, last, and all the time, public servants owing just such allegiance to the State as the officers of the Army and Navy owe to the United States. This standard may be considered unnecessarily high. But State forestry with any lower standard is doomed to failure.

Our plan was to select ten boys of good constitution and fair education, admit them to the school, pay them enough to live on and have them devote half their time to practical work in the nursery and in the woods, raising seedlings, making roads and making improvement cuttings. The other half of their time was spent in the class room, except when called out by some exigency of the forest service which

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demanding immediate attention—such, for example, as a forest fire. It was expected that in this way the state would be paid by actual labor what it cost to educate its foresters, and that these young men would imbibe principles of honor and loyalty which would make them proof against the seductions which can induce men of weaker principles to barter public interest for private gain.

"Tell it not in Gath" that beyond all this there was another reason why we paid our pupils as the cadets of West Point and Annapolis are paid to receive an education. It was that State foresters who were educated at public expense should not be removed without other reason than to make room for some fellow who knew nothing of forestry but who was politically useful. It was practically a civil service reform school, which ensured official position so long as the State work was faithfully done. The removal of such a man was a political question. In state forestry a man's political creed should count neither for nor against him.

There are now thirty young men receiving education in forestry at State cost. The course of instruction requires three years and out of the long list of applicants, ten are selected each year after a rigid competitive physical and mental examination; but before they enter the school they must give an acceptable bond to the sum of five hundred dollars, binding themselves to obey the rules of the school, to do all duties laid upon them and to serve in the State Forestry Service three years after graduation. If any one is dismissed from the school for failure at examinations, insubordination, or from any cause whatever he is bound by his bond to repay to the State all the money expended upon him. The bond has incidentally, another good effect. It gives us an earnest, reliable class of boys; for an unreliable lad would find it difficult to furnish the bond required. Each second and third year pupil is expected to furnish his own horse. The State provides forage. There are several reasons why this is required. In the first place, much of the

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work of a forester must be done on horseback, and training is necessary to enable one to conduct himself and his horse in safety over the rough ground of our reservations. The more important reason, however, is by having a mounted force always available at the school we can the more promptly suppress forest fires, before they have acquired dangerous proportions. The saving to the State is, in such cases, many fold the cost of maintaining the horses.

Pennsylvania originally sold her land, with all its wealth of timber upon it, to settlers, for twenty-six and two-thirds cents an acre. That it should be willing now to buy it back, with its timber gone and the soil impoverished, for an average price of about two dollars an acre indicates that some profound change has come over public sentiment. The fact that leaders of thought, all political parties, all newspapers of note and character approve of the policy is evidence conclusive that there must be some decisive reason first, and that citizens of my State have discovered that of all natural forces or agencies which maintain our wood working industries, equalize the flow of water in our streams, produce climatic conditions favorable to agriculture, the forest is the only one they can control and make the hand-maid of civilization and the guarantor of prosperous perpetuity to the Commonwealth. This idea has taken hold in Pennsylvania; and out of it has grown there the unanimous desire for forest protection and forest restoration.



The Rehabilitation of San Francisco

By James D. Phelan

Formerly Mayor of San Francisco.

WHEN San Francisco was destroyed by fire on April eighteenth, nineteenth and twentieth of last year, it had reached that stage of its progress in which the citizens began to contemplate the propriety of laying out new streets and boulevards, improving the old, encouraging art and architecture, and, by suggestion and organization, stimulating the æsthetic sense. Utility and beauty were to be more closely allied and to that end, Daniel H. Burnham, under the auspices of the Association for the Improvement and Adornment of San Francisco, made an elaborate plan, which for its production (although Mr. Burnham's services were gratuitous), the Association and the city expended \$20,000. The municipal authorities had adopted the plan as a tentative scheme and ordered the book printed. The original maps and drawings were unfortunately lost in the fire but a number of volumes were saved and these volumes contain all the essential matter.

There is no question that the association's work and the plans of Burnham had a very considerable educational value and when the city was laid low by the flames, it was considered that the ground had only been prepared by this heroic method for the carrying out of many of Mr. Burnham's suggestions. It was thought that there would be less objection to opening new streets, now that the buildings were down than there would have been while the improvements were still standing. After the Committee of Fifty on Relief had concluded its emergency work, a Committee of Forty on Reconstruction was appointed and this committee recommended constitutional amendments to the Legislature and a building ordinance to the municipal council, or as it is called, the board of supervisors. Sub-committees on the Widening

and Extension of Streets and on the Burnham Plan made reports containing practical recommendations. The Gould railroad interests, now seeking an entrance to the city, through its chief counsel, Walter J. Barnett, presented the Committee of Forty on Reconstruction with \$25,000 to defray the expenses of its preliminary work. Mr. Burnham's assistant, Mr. Edward Bennett, and draughtsmen and engineers were employed to make modified plans, under the direction of Mr. Burnham himself, who visited San Francisco shortly after the fire and coöperated with the committee in their work.

A constitutional amendment was submitted at the November election providing that the mayor and the board of supervisors, without the restrictions of existing laws, shall have power during the period of two years, to acquire by purchase, condemnation or donation, lands to be used for streets, parks, boulevards, reservoirs and esplanades; to acquire by purchase, or otherwise lands to be exchanged for other lands to be used for the above purposes; to sell or exchange lands now used or hereafter to be acquired for the above purposes; for other lands to be used for public or municipal buildings, and to change, widen and extend the lines of the city's streets. No lands now owned by the city, however, shall be disposed of until authority shall be first given by a majority of the voters.

Lack of confidence in the city's administration, however, operated to defeat this measure; but clubs have been organized by property owners on certain streets, and others composed of property owners in certain districts, and they are at work endeavoring to effect local improvements,—more particularly street widening and street extension. Many roadways have been widened by taking a certain number of feet from the sidewalks on either side; but the more difficult problem of widening the streets themselves has not met favor among the property owners and if this work is accomplished, it will have to be done,—not voluntarily, but by process of law. What were first considered favorable conditions for the making of these improvements really have

served to delay them. The owners of property, having been deprived of their incomes and having to meet taxation and other expenses, were compelled almost by the necessity of the situation to make improvements, some temporary and some permanent, on the old lines for the purpose of rehabilitating their own fortunes. The thing immediately before them appealed more strongly than the remote consideration of better and wider streets and an improved and adorned city; and, it is doubtful whether the eager expectations of those who are laboring for the city beautiful shall be as speedily realized as was at first contemplated. Necessity is not the mother of Art; it is the provider of bread.

Mr. Marsden Manson, a distinguished civil engineer and a former member of the Board of Public Works of San Francisco, has prepared a report addressed to the mayor, which has just been printed in which he takes the ground that commercial considerations must at this period of the city's development take precedence over mere questions of beauty, except in so far as they may go hand in hand. He says: "It is necessary to consider those great functions which San Francisco must discharge to the state, to the country, and to the world at large. These great functions are commercial; therefore, all developments should meet these essential and prime requirements first, and next, those which are secondary to these. When these essentials shall be adequately met, the others will take care of themselves." He then goes into a discussion of the needs of the water front and makes certain specific recommendations, which he estimates to cost in the next ten years, the sum of \$20,000,000, which should, he claims, be met by a state bond issue. He then recommended the widening of Folsom street by the city in order that it might be made a great thoroughfare parallel to Market street; the extension of Montgomery avenue and the widening of Fremont street, in order that it be made another thoroughfare parallel to the water front; the extension of Eighth street, the opening of a wide roadway from the ferries diagonally to Folsom and Fremont

streets and the widening of Commercial street. These improvements, as well as others, are proposed in the Burnham Plan made since the fire. He gives an estimate of the cost of all the purely municipal improvements recommended by him at \$5,000,000. He estimated the cost of rights of way for carrying out improvements recommended by the Committee of Forty for immediate construction, which includes his own list and many others, at \$8,815,000.

Since the fire, therefore, the Burnham Plan has been modified to meet the new conditions by its friends, and careful estimates of the costs of the improvements have been made and there is no doubt that after the public mind is settled and business has resumed its normal volume, work will be begun in several directions. Before the fire, much work had already been inaugurated under an authorized bond issue of \$17,000,000, the only bonded indebtedness of the city, and of which about \$5,000,000 have been actually spent in the purchase of, first, seven blocks of land between and connecting the Golden Gate Park and the Presidio Governmental reservation (the one containing 1,000 acres and the other 1,500 acres, a superb public domain). Second, the acquisition of a block of land for the erection of a public library, for which land and improvements \$1,700,000 was set aside, the land having cost about \$600,000. Here it may be mentioned in passing, that the supervisors recently attempted to use the library block for the purpose of erecting a temporary city hall and were enjoined by the Board of Library Trustees, the court holding that land purchased for library purposes could not be used for any other purpose than originally intended by the electors when voting thereon. Third, the acquisition of a park site in the Mission district and the purchase of a playground site south of Market street. Other moneys were appropriated for sewer construction, street improvements, and the erection of a hospital and only a small part of this money has as yet been used.

The city, therefore, has about \$12,000,000 in authorized bonds unsold and available for necessary improvements.

These bonds run for forty years, are serials, and bear three and one-half per cent interest. The assessment roll since the fire has been reduced from \$550,000,000 to \$335,000,000, the difference representing the loss of improvements. Land values have held remarkably firm, so it is reasonable to suppose that every year considerable additions will be made to the assessment roll, which this year will aggregate \$400,000,000. The city, therefore, is in a good position to issue a further bonded indebtedness, which is limited by law to fifteen per cent of the total assessed value of all property, and which would give a capacity of borrowing about \$60,000,000, less the \$17,000,000 already authorized. Its comparative freedom from debt (only \$5,000,000 today) makes its position strong.

The first item on the municipal program is a new water system and an auxiliary salt water fire protection service, and all other considerations must, for the time being, yield to this. Water is, however, paid for by the rate payers and is therefore no direct burden on the tax payers or the budget.

It took fifty years to build San Francisco; it cannot be rebuilt in a day. The conditions of growth, however, are radically changed. Originally the city developed on lines to meet the constantly increasing demands of commerce and trade; but now, commerce and trade are established and the population is on the ground and ready to resume its accustomed employment. It is only necessary to provide shelter and to recreate the business plant. The principal residence section and the wharves and water front have been spared and these constitute a substantial nucleus of future growth. We are told "the only way to resume is to resume," and already business has been resumed on a large scale. Out of \$225,000,000 insurance, perhaps less than one-half the total loss of property, \$180,000,000 have been paid and this is fast going into new construction. Van Ness avenue, which separates the burned from the saved sections of the city, is lined with attractive stores for almost its entire distance. The buildings are of wood and suitably serve a temporary

purpose. In the old business quarter, new buildings of a permanent character are assuming shape and it is expected that, within two or three years, the retail and wholesale trade will be housed in fireproof structures. There seems to be an irresistible tendency to return to the original locations, which had naturally lent themselves to the gradual growth of trade when trade was seeking a foothold. This bears out the experience of other cities, notably Chicago, after the great fire in 1872, that new and forced locations cannot be successfully established. This will be particularly true of our hill city, for unlike Chicago, there is a limited area and business is fixed by natural limitations—the hills and the harbor line, as well as the convenience of the public. Already many retailers have come down town and lawyers and business men fill the restored office buildings as fast as they are made ready.

Chinatown has begun its work of rehabilitation in its old quarter and refused to take kindly to an ideal site for "an Oriental city," a half-hour's distance by electric car from the city's center. The Chinese at home and abroad resist change.

I conclude, therefore, that intelligent steps have so far been made to take advantage of the destruction of the old city to recreate a new one on better lines. The laws have been amended, a strong building ordinance enacted, and civic organizations have not been idle. The new street plan is conceived in the proper spirit, first to facilitate traffic, to reduce distances between important points, as the ferries and railroad depots and the business and residence sections, and to provide outlets to the suburbs; and secondly, at the same time, to add to the safety and beauty of the city, by widening streets as a measure of fire protection; and, by the creation of a civic center, where necessary public buildings shall be grouped, to thus enhance the general effect. These things will come in time and I confidently predict that in five years San Francisco will have fully recovered from its late disaster.



OFFICERS OF CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

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THIS SUMMER.

If you are one of those fortunate people whose summer means additional leisure, you will enjoy following out some of the by-paths which have beckoned to you alluringly during this English year. And if you are one of those other fortunate people whose summer means much work and little play, then you are especially entitled to excursions into new and untried byways of authorland. As you are a Chautauquan, perhaps you will have learned ere this that it is hardly safe to rely wholly upon good intentions. You may nibble and browse as you will, but be sure that you provide yourself with the requisite fair pasturage!



A JAPANESE CHAUTAUQUA.

It is not surprising to hear that Japan is to have a Chautauqua Assembly. Twenty years ago, against great odds, a Japanese Chautauquan was for four years edited and published by native enterprise and that eager country was stirred from one end to the other by the message of Chautauqua. The present movement for a Summer Assembly is the result of a recent article on Chautauqua which appeared in the Japanese International Review, a page of which was reproduced in our November Round Table. The editor of the Review, Mr. Issa Tanimura, was for some years a student in America, visited Chautauqua several times, took the

C. L. S. C. course and graduated in '92, and has for a long time cherished the dream of a Chautauqua in his own country. It now seems probable that the experiment will really be tried during the coming summer.

It would not be strange if we should hear also of a Chautauqua in Italy in the not distant future. At the International Conference on Popular Education held in Milan last September, Professor Andreas Baumgartner, Headmaster of the High School at Zürich, Switzerland, who went as the accredited representative of Chautauqua Institution, found the members of the Conference most responsive. In his report to Chancellor Vincent he said:

"I am very much pleased with my mission. I had first to write a report in French on Chautauqua, which will be printed along with the other reports and which I shall send to you as soon as it is out. Then I was asked to give an account of Chautauqua at the meeting, in any language I should choose. Knowing that Italian was the language of the Congress, I thought it was best to speak in Italian (The time allowed was about fifteen minutes). I wrote my speech—and then I half read, half extemporized it.

"I spoke twenty minutes and I am glad I chose the Italian language for ninety-five per cent. were Italians. I spoke distinctly, so that not a word of my account was lost. I think I can truthfully say that I was successful, for they were very attentive; the subject was so new and so uncommon, and they applauded long when I had finished.

"I enjoyed much attention and honor at Milan, owing to the fact that I was the representative of a great nation, as they called it. For instance, on the first day, after the general meeting and general introductory speech, the different sections were formed and it was read out who had to act as president in the section, when to my horror I heard my name given out as President of the third section—'Education of the Grown-up Persons.' When I told the Congress-president that this was beyond my 'cunning,' as I spoke Italian but imperfectly, he said: 'It is an honor which you deserve, being the representative of a great institution and a great nation, and you have an Italian vice-president, who will do the main speaking for you.' So I, of course, accepted, and I acted in the third section as president all the three days, opening our meeting with a short Italian speech and closing it on Monday with a few remarks, and the Chautauqua account I also gave from my place of honor, with a big portrait of the King of Italy behind me, surrounded with flags."



Certificate awarded for the completion of the course for the year 1906-1907.

Chautauqua Library
and
Scientific Circle

Class _____

Abdul Vincent
Chairman

Reduced Facsimile of Annual Certificate

Professor Baumgartner reported that the Chautauqua Exhibit was well arranged and made an excellent impression. He added:

"I am sure that one great thing has been gained by Chautauqua having been represented at this Congress; i. e., there are hundreds of people now in Europe who know that there is a thing called Chautauqua, and these hundreds are just the people who take an interest in the education of the adult; not only do they know that there is a Chautauqua but what Chautauqua means and does and that this great and good educational movement has been working for thirty years already, in fact that it was the beginning of this work for the people who have left school. I emphasized the age of the movement, and repeated that '1874' to impress it forever on people's minds. The Italian movement is about six years old, the German and English much older, but it only followed the Chautauqua idea in the beginning."



THE ANNUAL CERTIFICATE.

If you are a member of the C. L. S. C. and have finished the course of reading for the year you are entitled to the



The Gladstone Statue in The Strand, London, Recently Unveiled

annual certificate. It is not necessary to fill out memoranda in order to secure this certificate. A form of application will be found on the first page of the detached memoranda accompanying the membership book. This application may be cut off and returned and the certificate will be mailed. The certificate is eleven by fifteen inches in size, is printed in brown and as will be seen from the illustration herewith will be a pleasant reminder of Oxford and the readings of the English year.

Many members are glad to add seals to their diplomas by answering the questions on the memoranda. There is a brief paper with twenty-five questions and a white seal paper with seventy-five. The brief paper filled out for four years entitles the student to one seal. The white seal paper, to one seal for each year. Five white seals on a diploma mean that a graduate has answered four hundred questions on his reading during the four years. Many graduates are enthusiastic over the benefit which they have gained from this written work, for it helps in the direction of clear thinking.



FROM A MEMBER OF 1910.

A very interesting Chautauqua experience is related in the following letter from a member of the Class of 1910 to the president of the class, Mr. Bestor. The letter was written from Baltimore:

Returning from Randolph-Macon College in 1886, I joined a Chautauqua Circle under the direction of Rev. Jack McCormack in Trinity M. E. Church South, Baltimore. On account of finances, a large number of the original participants dropped out, and so few enthusiasts were left, that the minority decided, rather than break up the literary society, they would abandon the Chautauqua work. Much to my sorrow this was done, and ever since, Chautauqua has been to me a dream, and oft have I heard a still small voice saying, No man, having put his hand to the plough, and looking back, is fit for the C. L. S. C. This did not trouble me for the shoe did not fit. While attending the Northfield Summer Conferences last year, my traveling companion pulled out a Chautauqua book. Pardon my thoughtlessness, or rather my thoughtfulness—I unceremoniously took the book from him, and he at once saw, without being a lump of Chautauqua leaven. He at once sent for a Quarterly, told, that at some time in the dim past I had been in contact with which, on perusal, only increased my fever, and, when in a few days two young men came into our camp straight from Chautauqua,

and told the old story, I "put my hand to the plough" once more, and clinched my hold, by sending my application and five dollars, and now I believe I am well on the way to 1910. Though a lone reader, what I miss in *heads*, I make up in *hours*, reading from five to eight hours a day. Some of the books I have read three or four times, and I conscientiously devour everything "English" I see in the magazines and newspapers. At first I kept account of my parallel reading, but it became so taxing and took so much time, I gave it up. Enclosed you will find a most interesting and instructive article on "Municipal Ownership." I wish all members of the Gladstone Class could read it. Hoping to meet you sometime at headquarters, I am, very sincerely yours.



QUARTER CENTURY CELEBRATION OF THE "PIONEER CLASS"

One of the notable events at Chautauqua this summer will be the twenty-fifth anniversary of the graduation of the Class of '82. Every "Pioneer" who can be there will surely attend, and those who cannot do so are invited to send letters of greeting. The class tablet, the first mosaic to be placed in the floor of the new Hall, will be unveiled and other exercises of an appropriate and inspiring character will be held. A printed letter giving details has been sent to every member of the class who can be reached and any who have failed to receive this should write at once to the secretary, Miss May E. Wightman, 242 Main street, Pittsburgh, Pa.



1907 CLASS NEWS.

Both the secretary, Miss Webster, and the treasurer, Mrs. Stivers, report growing correspondence upon class affairs as the end of the year approaches. Some of these letters suggest how eager many members of the class are for the privilege of going to Chautauqua to graduate. One who has had to give up her employment in order to care for an aged mother and so has greatly reduced her income, has for some weeks past rented her own pleasant room and gone into very restricted quarters, but the personal discomfort counts for little as she drops the rent money each week into a small box marked "Chautauqua."

Another member says: "I can trim hats pretty well and have been doing this for my friends to help increase

my Chautauqua outing fund. I have never visited Chautauqua and am looking forward to meeting Chancellor Vincent and to seeing our class home nor can I permit the class to pay for our room without contributing my mite. I wish I could tell you what the C. L. S. C. Course means to me. I was forced to leave school before graduation, so the course fills my hungry life full and gives me a new horizon. I have also been introduced to the books in our public library in a new way."

A member from the West in sending her contribution for the building fund says, "I am deeply interested in the success of our George Washington Class and wish to see it stand at the top." The President of the Point Comfort C. L. S. C. of St. Louis, Mo., sends the following cheerful account of that circle's activities:

"Our circle is looking forward with great pleasure to its graduation next August. We organized with ten members, six of whom will receive their diplomas. All desire to attend the exercises at Chautauqua in person—two may be counted on surely.

"Every one of us has been uplifted by the work of the past four years, and we feel grateful that we have had so many especially good advantages to broaden our horizon besides reading the books and magazines—lectures by learned men bearing on our studies—among them Dr. Geo. Vincent Professor Moulton and others, the Ben Greet Players in Shakespearean drama and comedy, and last but not least my sister and I toured Great Britain last summer, thereby helping to make this year's study doubly interesting by the pictures we took with a kodak and views bought enroute. What a happy reunion we shall have at dear old Chautauqua! . . . How about the financial standing of the "Washingtons?" What a pleasure and satisfaction it would be to all members to know that the class obligations have been met! My sister joins me in best wishes for the Class of 1907."

And there are numerous "Washingtonians" who for one reason or another may not hope for a trip to Chautau-

qua. Some of these will stand by their local Chautauquas and make their influence tell upon the new class which is to enroll this summer for graduation in 1911. One such member writes from Missouri: "I thought surely last summer as I marched with our class on Recognition Day that I would be with them to pass through the golden gate in 1907, but the other members of our circle here find it difficult to leave at that time and greatly desire I should remain and graduate with them at the Assembly which meets here each year. It is something of a disappointment not to be able to shout with vim as our president said last year, yet I feel as if it would be hardly right to desert the little band of enthusiastic workers with whom I have met one evening of each week for so long a time. The work this year has been particularly interesting."



LIBRARY HELPS FOR NEXT YEAR'S COURSE.

A circular with the title "Topical Outline of the C. L. S. C. Course for 1907-8" has recently been sent to all Circles which will enable them to plan their work for the new year well in advance and to furnish their libraries with lists of reference books supplementing the work of the American year.

Any Circle which may have failed to receive this circular should notify the C. L. S. C. Office at Chautauqua, New York.



FOR CHILDREN.

A request comes from a mother for graded lists of books to guide her in selecting reading for her boys and girls. We are glad to be able to recommend an admirable little pamphlet prepared by the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, Pa., from which a copy can be secured postpaid for twenty-five cents. The pamphlet is classified under three general divisions, Books for Younger Children, for Boys and for Girls. In each division the books are grouped by

subject. A brief paragraph on each book gives its general character and price.



ENGLISH STORIES FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

Supplementing the list of books on English topics for young people given in an earlier Round Table, we add a few more titles furnished through the courtesy of Miss Eleanor C. O'Connell:

God Save King Alfred, E. Gilliat. \$2.00. An account of the life and times of a king who deserved the title of Great.

Harold. Bulwer Lytton. \$.50. Norman invasion of England and Overthrow of Harold. Contains a fine description of the "Witan."

Ivanhoe. Walter Scott. Times of Richard the Lion Heart.

John Standish. E. Gilliat. Story of a famous ancestor of Captain Miles Standish. Wat Tyler's rebellion and court life under Richard II. Quaintly illustrated.

The Household of Sir Thomas More. Anne Manning. \$1.00. Times of Henry VIII. Home life of the author of Utopia.

Westward Ho! Charles Kingsley. 75 cents. The men of Devonshire in the days of the Armada.

Woodstock. Walter Scott. Days of the Commonwealth. Cromwell is a central figure of the story.

After Worcester. E. Everett Green. Charles II in his various disguises is the chief character.

The Last of the Barons. Bulwer Lytton. \$1.50. Times of the Wars of the Roses and Warwick the "King Maker."



NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

The June conversation of members of the Round Table naturally concerned itself greatly with plans for summer outings. The attractions of Chautauqua and of other Chautauquas were set forth with enthusiasm by the initiated, and even those optimistic members to whom Chautauqua could be only a sort of "Happy Isles" in the dim future, listened with wistful enjoyment.

"We are living examples of what Chautauqua can do," cheerfully interposed a member from Port Jervis, New York. "Four of us visited the lake last summer and were so delighted with it all that upon our return we formed a Circle which is called Deer Park Circle. We have only eight members at present as two who were with us have moved to California. We meet once a week at the

different houses and have tried to follow as closely as possible the suggested programs in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. We all enjoy the work and feel that already it has done a great deal for us."

"This atmosphere of travel reminds me," said an Ohio minister, "of my experience in Italy last winter. Just before I started I tore out of some old CHAUTAUQUANS the Reading Journeys on Rome, Florence, Venice, and the Zigzag trip through Italy. You would be surprised if you could know how many times members of the party threw aside their guide books and consulted my articles. We had only a short time in many places and THE CHAUTAUQUAN studies told us just what was worth seeing and why. The pamphlets were literally worn out by the time we left Italy."

A Mobile, Alabama, member explained that they were fortunate in having a Chautauqua Assembly near at hand at Citronelle. "Once a year," she said, "we have a picnic at the Chautauqua. It is a pleasant close to our year's study. We are all very hard working teachers but we overlook each other's minor shortcomings and our Circle is a source of good cheer to us all." "I hope you won't think us frivolous," added her neighbor from Friar's Point, Mississippi, "when I mention that we have started an embroidery club in connection with our Circle! We have some bright young people who enjoy meeting with us in this way and we look upon it as a sort of preparatory department for hard study next year. You shall know later how the plan works. This is our third year. We were delighted with the 'English Government' and are enjoying 'Rational Living.'"

"We are glad to indorse your sentiments on the 'English Government,'" returned the delegate from Pipestone, Minnesota, "and we were especially interested also in the articles on Dean Stanley and on John Burns. Indeed we get so absorbed in discussing the subjects which we are studying that we've adopted the plan of holding a social meeting once a month on a different day of the week from our regular meeting so as to continue subjects which have to be held over for lack of time. If Pendragon or any of the other members of the Round Table come to visit us they may be assured of a cordial welcome from a very enthusiastic Circle."

"It's very hard to make ourselves sound as interesting as we think we are," laughed the delegate from Arleta, Oregon. "We make a practice of taking note of thoughts that appeal to us as especially worth while, and when we have decided whom we would prefer for our guide through Oxford will let you know."

Pendragon next introduced a member from Kingfisher, Oklahoma. "Our Circle of eleven," he said, "are all members of the class of 1909 and we expect to finish the course and graduate to-

gether. We meet once a week and at the last meeting of each month our president appoints leaders for each week of the succeeding month, who in turn appoint leaders of special topics as outlined in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, hence our interest has never lagged. We have a special lecture course during the winter months of noted lecturers chosen from a lecture bureau. A local Chautauqua Assembly in June also contributes to the interest. Our membership is about equally divided between men and women. We have professional and business men, teachers and preachers."

"I notice from this newspaper clipping," said Pendragon, "that the Phyllis Wheatley Circle of Jacksonville, Florida, have been celebrating their thirteenth anniversary with a vesper service. We must have a word from their delegate." "I had the good fortune," responded the President, "to go to Chautauqua last summer, the first of our Circle to finish the four years' course. You can imagine that I brought back enough enthusiasm to contribute some to the Circle. One of our members who had to make a new home in Pensacola has started a C. L. S. C. there, and the vesper service to which you allude was so much appreciated that I think we may venture next time to hold it in a church."

"It's interesting to observe," said Pendragon, "how many different types of Circle we have, as shown by their places of meeting. Here, for instance, is New Harmony, Indiana, with fifteen or twenty wide-awake members who meet in the public library and who freely call upon the librarian for help since the book fund of the library has the unique distinction of being 'overflowing.' Then in St. Louis, Schuyler House of Christ Church Cathedral harbors a capital circle of young women who meet twice a month and are well organized. Their method of criticism is to have no critic but to set apart five minutes at the close of each meeting when all who care to, offer criticisms. In Brooklyn, New York, is a Y. M. C. A. Circle made up of secretaries, the busiest of people but as they say, they 'feel the need of some intellectual interest outside of their own work and are finding profit and help in following THE CHAUTAUQUAN program of readings. Meetings are held every two weeks at the various branches and a program presented by various secretaries. We have no definite leader but take turns in presiding and acting as critics.' The advantage of the house method of meeting," continued Pendragon, "is illustrated by many circles—but it must prove almost an embarrassment as tested by a New York City Circle whose members are scattered over the wide stretches of greater New York. One of their number is over eighty and the visit of the Circle to her house was a great event. There is much to be said for this peripatetic method on the ground of good cheer."

"Perhaps this is a fitting time for me to report on our February Valentine Social," said a member from Norwalk, Ohio. "This special form of hilarity is one which we have indulged in for some years. It follows our regular meeting. On this occasion we opened the exercises with a supper at the home of one of our members who has ample space at her command and who did much for our enjoyment. The table was of course decorated with hearts and with flowers furnished by a member who now lives in West Virginia but who remembers us each year. We found our seats at the table by means of Shakespeare quotations cut in half requiring us to match the other portion. It seemed fitting that the author of the 'Sonnets' should be our guide on a celebration of Cupid's day. The attire of the maidens who waited upon us was fittingly adorned with hearts large and small, some showing signs of wear and tear, and others quite free. The literary program which followed consisted of a great variety of sentiments given at roll call ranging from philosophical discussions of 'All the World's a Stage' to conundrums of various sorts including sketches of Cupid drawn to order with rhymes to match. The results were as successful, we feel sure, as the efforts of many a spring poet! One member's contribution was a burlesque on the Houses of Commons and Lords and another dealt with the proposal to abandon the Chautauqua Salute in the interest of the anti-bacilli movement! It is difficult to describe such an entertainment and give its real spirit but you can imagine it was made the occasion for many a humorous twist to subjects previously discussed with all solemnity."

"Our two Circles at Mt. Vernon, New York," said Pendragon, have as usual been trying numerous schemes to give vent to their superabundant energies. The Edelweiss wrote in the autumn that they had laid out their plan of work as follows:

"We have started the study of English Government by reviewing especially prepared maps of (1) Britain at the time of Julius Cæsar, (2) at the time of Hengist and Horsa and have laid the foundation for the Reading Journeys by a lecture on the counties formed first by the Romans, and later by the exigencies of subsequent invasions, conquests and internal differences, political and social. Have begun study of Shakespeare's plays with a (specially prepared) game of quotations limited to the four plays under consideration; and have arranged roll calls to be answered with written quotations filed with the secretary. When the play from which they are taken has been fully studied, the quotations will be used as a "quiz"—bringing out individual knowledge of the speaker or character using the words quoted. Mr. Joseph W. Dale (an English-born) student of languages and anthropology has made the maps and is conducting the study on England. He briefly reviews one

required book and then gives side-lights from others he has either read or brings with him, and frequently puts questions to members. "The Beginning of England's Sea Power" was discussed by means of twenty written questions to members and a prize offered for the greatest number of answers."

Pendragon next introduced Mr. LePage, the president of the Outlook Circle, who responded for his fellow members: "We have had uniformly good meetings this season," he said, "and our press correspondent has in most cases written them up so that the public are constantly reminded that Chautauqua is at work in their midst. Our Browning meeting in the late winter was an exceptionally delightful occasion. We gave quotations at roll call which, as one of our members said, 'proved conclusively that contrary to popular opinion much of his writing is in plain, simple English.' A selection from Stopford Brooke comparing Tennyson with Browning was next read and then we had a fine address by Professor Lambuth of Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn., on 'The Dramatic Side of Browning.' He illustrated his remarks with frequent selections after which we had several musical numbers, among them the song from Pippa Passes, 'The Year's at the Spring.' A study of Rabbi Ben Ezra closed the literary program which was afterward discussed over 'Browning' refreshments—brown bread and coffee! I mustn't take too much time but you will be interested I am sure in a fine lecture which we gave in March by Professor A. V. Williams Jackson of the Department of Indo-Iranian languages at Columbia University. This was due to the efforts of one of our members, Mrs. N. S. Gidley. Dr. Jackson gave his services and we made the lecture of course an 'open' one, sending tickets to the public school principals and the various clubs and enlisting the coöperation of the churches. A fine large audience greeted Dr. Jackson and his lecture on 'The Rise of the English Drama' proved intensely interesting. We were fortunate in securing him as he is soon to start on an extended trip through Central Asia."

Special Civic Numbers of The Chautauquan

Number One (Vol. 37, No. 5)

SIGNED EDITORIALS: THE GERM OF IMPROVEMENT SOCIETIES. A PERSPECTIVE ON WOMAN'S CLUBS. THE SIMPLE LIFE IN A COMMERCIAL AGE. PRINCIPLE IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT. THE CHURCH AND POLITICAL ACTION. THE OBSTACLES TO FACTORY BETTERMENT. SELF-SURRENDER IN ART TASTE. WHERE OUR BALLOT AND REGISTRATION LAWS FAIL. THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHURCH ARCHITECTURE IN AMERICA. NATURE STUDY AND CITIZENSHIP. LEGISLATION AGAINST CHILD LABOR. TAXATION OF SPECIAL FRANCHISES. COÖPERATION OF CIVIC SOCIETIES.

SPECIAL ARTICLES: FOR A MORE BEAUTIFUL ST. LOUIS, Louis E. Van Norman; MAKING CHAUTAUQUA A MODEL; THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE BETTERMENT MOVEMENT, Oscar L. Triggs; THE AMERICAN MUNICIPAL ART MOVEMENT, W. T. Larned; CHICAGO—A CIVIC HYMN, Horace Spencer Fiske; THE LOUISVILLE SUMMER PLAY-GROUNDS, M. Eleanor Tarrant; CIVIC SYMPOSIUM—THE MOST IMPORTANT EVENT IN CIVIC IMPROVEMENT; THE GOSPEL OF PICTURES, Caroline A. Leech; THE EDUCATIONAL FORCE OF A PUBLIC LIBRARY, Mary Eileen Ahern; ICONOCLASM, Edmund Vance Cooke; THE REAL BILL-BOARD QUESTION, Peter B. Wight. PROGRESS OF RURAL IMPROVEMENT, A. C. True; THE NEW INDUSTRIALISM, Mary R. Cranston; THE RESULT OF AN IDEA, Jane L. Ferguson; THE STORY OF THE CIVIC CLUB OF CARLISLE, PA., Gertrude Bosler Biddle; THE NEW JERSEY PARK SYSTEM, Alonzo Church; WHAT WOMEN HAVE DONE FOR FORESTRY, Mary E. Mumford; SPRINGS AND FOUNTAINS, Jessie M. Good; WHAT IS JUNIOR CIVICS? E. G. Routzahn; SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF THE WAR AGAINST THE MOSQUITO, C. B. Davenport; HOW TWO TOWNS WERE IMPROVED. RECENT BETTERMENT LEGISLATION; A PARTIAL BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CIVIC PROGRESS, E. G. Routzahn.

Number Two (Vol. 39, No. 4) (Railroad Civics Number)

CONTAINING THESE SPECIAL ARTICLES: EVOLUTION OF THE AMERICAN RAILROAD, George B. Waldron; THE MAN IN THE TOWER, S. E. Kiser; RAILROAD ODDITIES, L. E. Taylor; RAILROAD TRADE JOURNALISM, Frank Chapin Bray; LOCOMOTIVE AND CAR LIFE, Adrian W. McCoy; ORGANIZATIONS OF RAILWAY EMPLOYEES, Starr Cadwallader; RAILROAD TEMPERANCE REGULATIONS, William E. Johnson; THE CHIEF MISSION OF THE RAILROAD, W. H. Truesdale; THE RAILROAD BRANCH OF THE Y. M. C. A., G. A. Warburton; THE WAY STATION AGENT: SUGGESTING AN EPIC, J. J. Shanley; THE TZAR OF THE SLEEPING CAR, Arthur Sullivant Hoffman; SOCIAL CENTERS FOR RAILROAD MEN, The Editor; RAILROAD STATION IMPROVEMENT, Mrs. A. E. McCrea; CIVIC CHRONICLE FOR 1903 AND 1904, Charles Zueblin; CIVIC STUDY PROGRAMS—LIBRARIES, John Thomson; THE PARK PROBLEM, AND PARK AND OUTDOOR ART, G. A. Parker; BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CIVIC PROGRESS, E. G. Routzahn.

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Number Three (Vol. 41, No. 4) (Tree Number)

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Van Marter Beede; TREES ON SMALL HOME GROUNDS, Frances Copley Seavey; SOME HISTORICAL TREES, Mrs. Herman J. Hall; "THE TREES OF THE LORD" AND "THE TREE BUTCHER," John Davey; TREE PLANTING ON TREELESS LAND, Samuel Monds Coulter; TREE PROTECTION IN THE UNITED STATES, Mrs. Charles F. Millsbaugh; THE SIGNIFICANCE OF ARBOR DAY, Carl H. Grabo; THE TREE PLANTING MOVEMENT, E. G. Routzahn; TREES IN CEMETERIES, O. C. Simonds; NEW TREES INTRODUCED BY THE GOVERNMENT, Walter H. Evans; FIGHTING FOREST FIRES, H. M. Suter; AN EXPERIMENT IN ROAD BEAUTIFYING, S. B. McManus; LANDSCAPE VALUE OF SOME OF OUR COMMON TREES, John Craig; FORESTRY AT THE PORTLAND EXPOSITION, W. E. Brindley; SONGS OF THE TREES—Under the Greenwood Tree, Shakespeare; Fair Pledges of a Fruitful Tree, Robert Herrick; The Brave Old Oak, H. F. Chorley; Under the Cedarcroft Chestnut, Sidney Lanier; THE CATALPA SPECIOSA, John P. Brown; SURVEY OF CIVIC BETTERMENT—A Significant Forest Congress. From the Field. Topics in the Magazines. Publications of the Bureau of Forestry. Forestry Associations in the United States.

Number Four (Vol. 43, No. 4) (American Civic Association Number)

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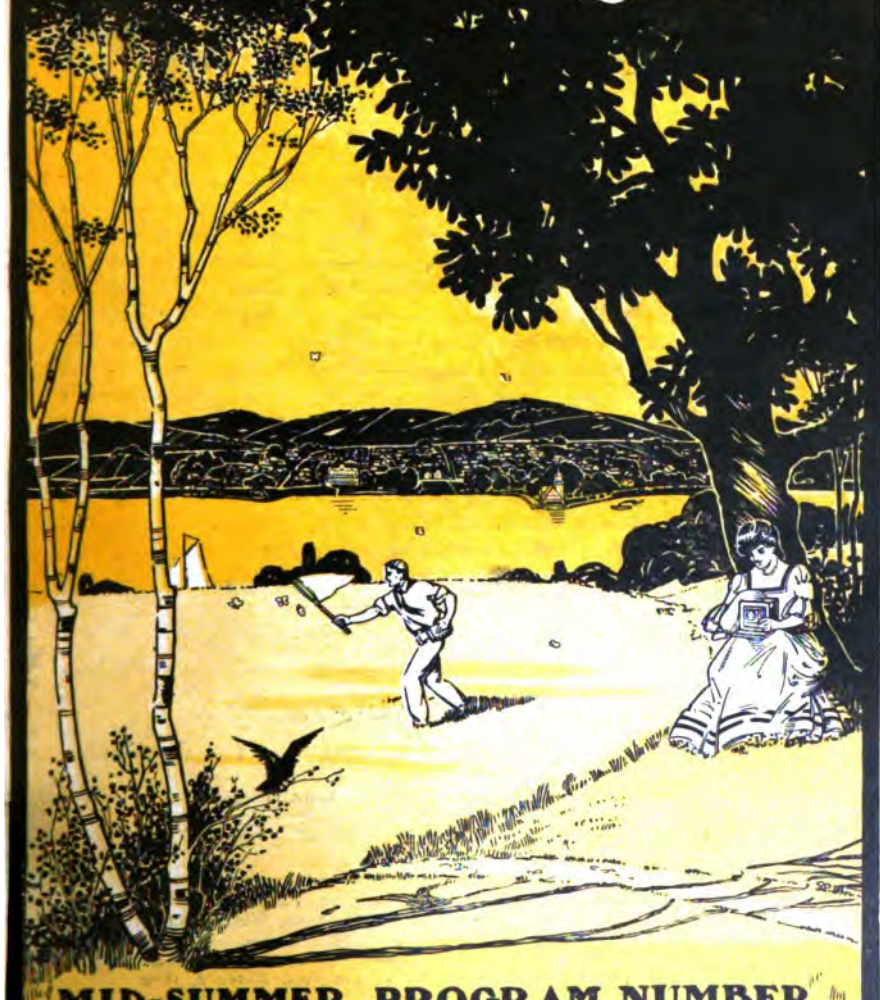
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THE MAGAZINE OF SYSTEM IN READING

Official Publication of Chautauqua Institution

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THE NORTH SHORE



THE SOUTH SHORE

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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JULY, 1907.

No. 2.



THE American immigration commission, organized under the act of the last Congress, has sent several of its members to Europe to study the sources of our heavy immigration—the present average is a million a year, and an increase is expected—the conditions of the actual potential emigrants, the methods of stimulating the movement resorted to by steamship companies and agents of corporations seeking cheap labor, and other phases of the problem. The commissioners who have remained here will study the distribution of the aliens who gain admission and the best ways and means of preventing congestion in the great northern cities and growth of objectionable “foreign colonies.” As a result of these investigations and labors a comprehensive bill will no doubt be submitted to the next Congress further regulating and restricting immigration and taking better care of the aliens who are permitted to land and make homes in this country.

It is significant to find that while the steady increase in the number of immigrants is causing much talk of additional measures of restriction on our part, the countries that are losing population to us are beginning to take steps to limit or control emigration. What they at first encouraged they now find it necessary to discourage. Italy, Greece, and Spain are distinctly anxious about the effects of their losses of population on industry, commerce, agriculture and the national welfare.

Italy is considering a bill to restrict emigration. Over 400,000 persons, mostly laborers from her fields and fac-

tories, leave the country annually for the United States, Brazil, La Plata and other countries in the western hemisphere. Much land is said to have gone out of cultivation in consequence of this, prices are rising, factory labor is scarce and dear, and many villages are desolate and deserted.

In Greece similar effects have been produced by the exodus to America, which has affected the whole peasant population, and a government committee has considered the problem and recommended some limitation of the movement. From Spain thousands of families emigrate to South America, Hawaii, Cuba and our Southern States, and the same question is presenting itself. It is true that the immigrant in America saves money and sends it home to invest in land, pay off mortgages or assist relatives and friends. To Greece alone it is estimated that about \$7,500,000 is sent annually by such immigrants. To Italy the sums so sent are enormous, and the savings bank and other institutions bear eloquent testimony to this golden stream flowing from America and enriching the old world countries. But the latter are discovering that the gold does not compensate them for the material and moral injury they sustain in consequence of such tremendous losses of laborers and defenders and founders of families. Possibly these related questions of emigration and immigration will lead to international conferences to discuss measures of restriction in the interest of all concerned.



Lake Mohonk and the Hague Conference

In view of the assembling of the second Hague Conference, the discussion at and the resolutions adopted by the thirteenth Lake Mohonk conference on international arbitration assume special importance. Recent events which attested the growth of peace and solidarity among the nations were reviewed, and such questions as forcible debt collection by governments in foreign countries and partial disarmament, or limitation of armaments, were debated

with great earnestness. The resolutions, however, make no reference to the difficult and friction-breeding question of armaments, as Germany objected even to its discussion at the Hague Conference. They reiterate the recommendation of last year for the neutralization of ocean trade routes and make the following new recommendations and requests:

1. A provision for stated meeting of the Hague Conference.

2. Such changes in the Hague court as may be necessary to establish a definite judicial tribunal always open for the adjustment of international questions.

3. A general arbitration treaty for the settlement of international disputes.

4. Establishment of the principle of the inviolability of innocent private property at sea in time of war.

5. A declaration to the effect that there should be no armed intervention for the collection of private claims when the debtor nation is willing to submit such claims to arbitration.

If these things should be adopted by the conference, "the millennium would be near," in the words of the speakers. Certainly the objections to armament limitation would lose all force. It is hoped that some, at least, will be approved, especially the one providing for regular meetings of the conference without invitations and the need of initiative by any of the powers. It should be added that the Mohonk conference has been criticised for its abandonment of idealism and descent to expediency and "practicality," instead of continuing to advocate limitation of armaments.



New Ideas on Public Utilities

Governor Hughes of New York was elected to reform certain abuses in the management of public service companies and other corporations. He has not lost sight of that fact or issue for an hour, and the passage by the legislature of the "Hughes public utilities bill" is a great victory, not only for his administration, but for the people. The opposition to the measure was strong and determined; more

than once its defeat by a combination of Republican and Democratic spoilsmen and corporation agents was freely predicted; but the governor's frank and forceful appeals to the people, and the support which the press gave him, caused the opposition to surrender to public opinion and pass a bill that is notable as it is sound and salutary.

It embodies the new, the progressive ideas on the subject of the proper treatment of corporations operating under special franchises. It provides for effective control of common carriers and gas and electric lighting companies by appointive commissions invested with real power. It imposes definite duties and obligations with regard to service and provides for reasonable rates and charges. It empowers the commissions to set aside rates found upon investigation to be excessive and to order the immediate substitution of reasonable rates. All discriminations and illicit favors are prohibited. No mergers or consolidations of public utilities can take place without sanction by the commissions, and full publicity of accounts and affairs of such corporations is prescribed.

One of the most vital provisions of the act is that henceforth no franchise shall be capitalized, unless something has actually been paid for it, and in that case only to the extent of such payment. No dividends are to be paid on the capitalized value of the privileges and statutory monopolies granted by states or municipalities to public service companies; returns are allowed only on the capital they themselves invest.

The machinery for enforcing these provisions and preventing delays and obstructive litigation is believed to be entirely adequate, and much direct advantage is expected from the Hughes measure.

What New York has just secured with some difficulty Massachusetts has long enjoyed. In the latter state neither franchises nor unearned increment (increased value of real estate due to the growth of population) may be cap-

italized by public service companies. But most states are far behind Massachusetts in this matter of protecting the people from the greed and dishonesty of unscrupulous monopoly, and the Hughes measure will serve as a model and example.

The success of Governor Hughes in compelling a recalcitrant legislature to enact his reform bills into law has made him an important figure in national politics, and there is talk of his candidacy for the Republican presidential nomination. He may not be as strong as Secretary Taft at this time, but his popularity is steadily and deservedly growing. Like Secretary Taft, he thinks only of his duties and present responsibilities, and if there is to be a Hughes boom it is safe to say that the New York executive himself will do nothing to foster it.



Universal Suffrage and Democracy in Austria

The first election under the new Austrian suffrage act took place in the third and fourth weeks of May, and it resulted in remarkable political changes and surprises. The new suffrage law, it will be remembered, is democratic and radical. It enfranchises every man of 24 who is able to read and write, abolishes plural voting, and provides for a direct and secret ballot. It was enacted after a strenuous struggle and at the expressed wish of the aged emperor. No one knew what to expect or fear from it, but everybody felt that the whole political situation would be altered in consequence of the wholesale enfranchisement of workmen and others of the "lower classes."

According to some Austrian comments, the new suffrage system "has re-created Austria." The election wiped out the Pan-German group in the popular house of parliament, and dealt severe blows at everything that was anti-national in any sense and that aimed at division of the kingdom. Evidently a new unifying bond has been found in that much disturbed country. The parties that made the

greatest gains are the Socialists and anti-Semitic "Christian Socialists." The former will have eighty-three seats and will constitute the largest party in the house. The latter will have sixty-six seats. There are other groups and factions, German, Czech, and other, and many combinations and alliances will be formed. On some important questions the Socialists will be outvoted by the Clericals, Agrarians and Anti-Semites; but nevertheless the influence of the Socialist and proletariat party will be considerable.

The suffrage law creates racial constituencies and allots a given number of seats to each. It also provides for proportional representation of minorities in heterogeneous constituencies, and authorizes local diets to make voting compulsory. The last-named feature did not prevent thousands of citizens in lower Austria from neglecting their new political rights. In the main, however, the law has justified the hopes of its radical friends while demonstrating the existence of a deep nationalist and patriotic sentiment among the masses. The legislation and proceedings of the new parliament will command the interest of Europe and the world.



The Initiative and Referendum as an Issue

Mr. Bryan has been advocating the initiative and referendum for our state, local and general legislation. He has taken the position that no believer in democracy, in government by the people, can consistently object to a popular veto upon legislation or to popular initiative in matters of legislation. Other leading Democrats have criticised this view as un-American and revolutionary, because our constitution contemplates and establishes representative, not direct, government. In some quarters the question has been raised whether direct legislation can be called "a Republican form of government," since political text-books and authorities define "Republican government" as government by elected agents and servants of the people. The objection to the ini-

tiative and referendum is urged against the proposed Oklahoma constitution in this sense, and the President is advised to disapprove of the charter as not giving the people of the territory a Republican form of government.

Meantime several things have happened that are calculated to strengthen the movement for the widest use of the initiative and referendum. From Oregon, the only state that has adopted that system, even conservative statesmen report that it is working successfully and proving the good sense, the natural moderation and reasonableness of the people. The Supreme Courts of Oregon and California have sustained the validity of the initiative and referendum in municipal and state affairs, and have held that it is not un-Republican to give the people greater control of legislation, so long as representative government is preserved and the division of governmental power maintained.

The people of Lincoln, Nebraska, have recently voted by a large majority to adopt the initiative and referendum in their city, a state act passed a decade ago making it optional with cities to introduce this system. Any ordinance may be proposed by twenty per cent. of the voters, and such a proposal must be submitted to the people at a general or special election. A majority vote in its favor makes it law. On the other hand, any ordinance passed by the city council—except such as affects the health of the city or appropriates money for current expenditures and is adopted unanimously—must be referred to the people for acceptance or rejection if within thirty days of its passage twenty per cent. of the voters petition the council for such reference.

These facts indicate the growth of the movement for direct legislation in the United States. It is hardly necessary to add that the submission of bond issues, franchise proposal, tax and improvement schemes has long been a feature of American politics. Constitutions, of course, are now invariably submitted to the people, and the referendum as an institution is really as old as our government. Its present growing popularity is the result of legislative abuses and

control of local and state legislative machinery by bosses and unscrupulous corporations enjoying and seeking unfair special privileges. Every new city charter, every new constitution contains provisions for larger use of the initiative and referendum.



Canada's Industrial Arbitration Act

The many strikes and labor troubles from which New York, San Francisco, Boston, Chicago and other cities have suffered in the past few months should direct earnest attention to the means adopted in other countries toward the prevention of such industrial disturbances. The New Zealand system of compulsory arbitration by a court of special jurisdiction is sufficiently well known here, though the accounts of its operation and actual results differ widely. Some correspondents say that the system is breaking down, and that neither employers nor workmen view it with much favor. Violations of it by some trade unions are instanced, and editors and public men are quoted in criticism of it. However, it is not at all likely that the system will be abolished and the regime of "free strikes and lockouts" restored in New Zealand.

Canada's late parliament adopted an industrial disputes act which is not as radical as that of New Zealand but which presents some features of interest and is attracting notice in the United States and England. It is an act for compulsory investigation of and full publicity as to the facts and issues in all disputes affecting coal mines and public utilities like railroads, street railways, telegraphs, telephones, etc. The theory of the act is that impartial inquiry and thorough discussion will in most cases bring about a settlement of differences relating to wages or hours or conditions of work without resort to extreme measures that involve loss, hardship to the public and danger of disorder.

The act provides that in any dispute in the industries affected either party may appeal to the minister of labor,



Three prominent figures in the recent British Colonial Conference: Hon. Winston Churchill, Political Secretary of the Colonial Office; Hon. Alfred Deakin, Premier of Australia; Rt. Hon. Sir Wilfred Laurier, Premier of Canada.

John Redmond, leader of the Irish Nationalists in the House of Commons. The late Edwin B. Conger, United States Minister to China at the time of the Boxer Rebellion. The late Dr. John Watson (Ian Maclaren), celebrated Scottish clergyman and author.



NO CLASS.

CHORUS OF IRISH TERRIERS: "CALL THAT THING A DOG? WE CALL IT A TOY."

Cartoon in *Punch* upon Mr. Birrell's Irish Council Bill.

whose duty it becomes to appoint a board of conciliation to investigate the dispute and make an award. Pending the investigation and the making of the award strikes and lockouts are prohibited under penalties. But the award itself is not binding; the parties are free to abide by it or continue the dispute and resort to the strike or lockout. However, they may originally agree to be bound by the award, and if they do so it acquires the force of a judicial decree.

Another important provision of the act is that at least thirty days' notice must be given by either party of any intended change in the terms and conditions of employment. This is designed to prevent surprises and sudden disputes, to give opportunity for an appeal to the minister and the creation of a court of inquiry.

It will no doubt be difficult to enforce the act, for if a strong union should violate it and strike without notice or pending investigation each member might have to be prosecuted and fined. But it is an interesting and advanced piece of industrial legislation nevertheless and may prove distinctly beneficial.



England and Colonies in Conference

One of the notable events of the present year is the colonial—or imperial—conference that was recently held in London. It was the fourth conference of the kind, but it proved to be of greater moment and significance than any one of its predecessors. Several steps forward were taken by it which may mark a new stage in the relation between the United Kingdom and her self-governing colonies.

The major questions before it were: Trade preferences, or closer commercial union by means of new tariff arrangements, imperial defense, colonial contribution to English naval expenditures, emigration, and the future character and work of the conference as an institution. It was unfortunate that the conference was energetically “exploited” by partisans for political purposes, the Tories and followers of Mr.

Chamberlain in fiscal matters seeking to discredit the Liberal party and government, assuring the colonial premiers that the latter did not represent public sentiment of the mother country and telling them that closer relations and mutually advantageous tariff and other arrangements between the colonies and England could only be secured through the success of the Tory-Chamberlain program. The "failure" of the conference was loudly proclaimed, and the more rabid organs did their worst to cause friction and misunderstanding in the conference. The colonial premiers, however, observed a correctly neutral attitude and avoided the traps of partisanship.

The question of trade preferences was vigorously debated by the conference, the Australian premier, Mr. Deakin, making all sorts of proposals which involved the levying of a duty by England on foreign goods and the maintenance of free trade with the colonies. His final proposal was a one per cent. duty on foreign goods—"the entering wedge," as some said of it, for the acceptance of such a proposal would have meant surrender of their free trade principles by the Liberals. But the premiers of Canada, New Zealand, and the Transvaal opposed Mr. Deakin's tariff suggestions, and the government, in rejecting them as inconsistent with the mandate it received at the last general election, was not without colonial support. The British government declared itself bound to maintain the existing fiscal system, to abstain from taxing food or other staples, and to adhere to the principle of tariff autonomy.

There will thus be no change in the trade relations between England and her colonies, although the former is willing to consider other ways of promoting colonial trade with the British people—steamship subsidies, cheaper and better communication, low postage, and so on.

On the question of defense the only important action taken was the establishment of an imperial military staff, with advisory powers, to study the resources and needs of

the empire and make recommendations to the home war office.

The conference has been made a permanent institution and given a secretarial staff that is to constitute a bureau in the colonial office. This staff will gather information, carry on under instructions the work of the conference in the intervals between meetings—they are to be quadrennial, except when subsidiary conferences are called in emergencies—and the prime minister of the United Kingdom is to preside over them.

The conference took action on certain minor matters, and did not entirely satisfy the premier of Newfoundland, who raised the fisheries question and demanded relief against burdens imposed on the little colony by treaties with the United States. On the whole, however, and politics aside, it accomplished more than many had anticipated.



A Little Autonomy for Ireland or the Status Quo?

While no one had expected a home rule bill from the Liberal government of England, for the leaders of the Liberal party explicitly stated in the campaign of 1905 that in the event of the success of that party no such measure would be introduced during the life of the next parliament, it is doubtless true that a little more was implied in the promises of "administrative autonomy" that the same leaders deemed themselves free to make than was realized in the so-called Birrell bill, recently introduced in the House of Commons as the measure of safe, possible and timely political and administrative reform for Ireland. The disappointment with the limitations of the bill was keen, and it was not confined to Irish Nationalists and Home-rulers. English radicals, American observers and others have expressed surprise at its painful inadequacy and timidity.

The bill creates an Irish council, partly elective and partly appointive. This council is to have no legislative powers, but the control of the majority of the great administrative

departments of Ireland. All its acts will be subject to the veto of the lord lieutenant, and over the judiciary, the constabulary, the land commission and other "political" departments it will have no control whatever. The Irish members of parliament are to have seats in the council, but the protestant and anti-home rule minority is to be strongly represented.

This is indeed a slight concession. It is not even the proverbial half-way house to a separate Irish parliament and real autonomy. But in considering, not its intrinsic merits, but its practical value, certain great facts must be taken into account. One is that a powerful section of the Liberal party itself is imperialist and anti-home rule, and at least three important positions in the cabinet are held by members of this section. A more radical bill in favor of Irish autonomy would drive these ministers out of the cabinet and split or wreck the government and the party. The Birrell bill, in all probability, represents the maximum of what the Liberal imperialists and unionists are willing to grant.

Another great fact is that the House of Lords would probably reject even such a modest reform measure as the Birrell bill, for the Tory-Unionist opposition has been vehemently denouncing it as the entering wedge and beginning of secession and separation. Even those Tories who ridicule the bill as lame, insincere and worthless condemn it, with absurd inconsistency, in the same breath as a danger to the integrity of the United Kingdom and the British Empire. The Irish manifestly cannot at present hope for home rule, and the alternative to the council scheme is nothing at all, the perpetuation of "Castle" or crown government, the failure of which all recognize.

A national convention at Dublin unanimously voted to reject the Birrell bill as utterly inadequate in scope and objectionable in its details, and the government has decided to drop it. But will it also drop the whole question and adhere to the status quo, or will a somewhat improved measure for administrative reform and autonomy be intro-

duced next year? The Irish will continue their agitation, and the position of the Liberals is and will be full of difficulty and embarrassment. An evicted tenants' bill will be introduced, with power of compulsory purchase of land for the benefit of the reinstated tenants, but this is an economic measure. The Irish are determined to obtain political reform as well.



What Our Readers Think

The Editors of THE CHAUTAUQUAN indulged recently in an experiment. This was no other than an attempt to gauge the popularity of the books required in the C. L. S. C. course and the series of articles published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. It is often difficult for those in control of a publication to determine just what articles are best suited to the needs of their readers and what general policy should be pursued to achieve the best results. In a general way the popularity of a magazine may be determined by the record of its sales but in the case of THE CHAUTAUQUAN this is an untrustworthy index. The greater part of the magazine's readers are members of C. L. S. C. Circles, pursuing the full course of study. In this course the books and magazine both are studied and it is not easy to say which, if either, is the more popular during any single year of reading.

The Editors endeavored to get at the facts by sending two hundred letters to that number of secretaries of local Circles on the C. L. S. C. lists, scattered throughout the United States and Canada. A number of questions were asked pertaining to the year's work, and particular information was requested regarding the general policy and special departments of THE CHAUTAUQUAN magazine.

The results have been illuminating and, on the whole, gratifying. Eighty-five replies have already been received summarizing opinions of as many circles. This number is sufficient to be taken as a fair index of the preferences of the C. L. S. C. readers as a body and the Editors will pro-

ceed confidently on the assumption that to follow the policy suggested by these replies is the best means of meeting the requirements of the C. L. S. C. students. As an educational publication, exempt from commercial motives, this is the single end for THE CHAUTAUQUAN to consider.

The approval of the new form of the magazine was almost unanimous. Its convenience and attractiveness were universally conceded even by those readers who had for many years been accustomed to the older form. That so radical a change should meet so immediate and hearty an indorsement was particularly pleasing, for the Editors had decided upon the new form only after long debate and even then with some trepidation. But as one critic remarked, the new magazine "fits so conveniently into the pocket—if you have a pocket," that all minor objections were outweighed.

As our purpose is not self-laudation we refrain from quoting many enthusiastic comments but we cannot deny that an expression of approval such as the following causes us sincere pleasure: "We do not see how the magazine could be improved upon. It is satisfactory in every way."

Nevertheless we believe the magazine can be improved and with the aid of our readers we shall endeavor to make such improvement. Our problem is briefly this: Shall THE CHAUTAUQUAN endeavor to compete in the general magazine field with the infinite and varied publications now striving to gain and hold the attention of the reading public? Or, on the other hand, will it more adequately meet the needs of its readers if it devotes the space left at its disposal for general articles, only to such subjects as will supplement the course of study? So to limit our supplementary material does not necessarily mean to narrow the scope of the magazine. Our courses of study are broad and touch at many points upon the life of the day. The relation of the past to the present, of art and literature to modern social problems, may be indicated by articles which both pertain to the reading course and illumine the present day world

in which we live. These relationships are numerous and endlessly complicated. We believe it should be our policy to point them out, making our magazine essentially a study magazine, but never forgetting that all life and knowledge are of piece; that today is making history, art and literature; that life and knowledge, past and present, are alike our field.

Many of the critics of the C. L. S. C. circles are, we find, magazine readers. They do not wish THE CHAUTAUQUAN to scatter its energies in fields covered by the excellent, miscellaneous magazines now so abundant. General articles they do indeed desire but with this important qualification, that, however general, the articles relate to the study work of the C. L. S. C. year. When such relationship is not superficially obvious it should be the object of our staff of contributors to make it apparent. In this way our field will be broad and interesting, yet concentrated, and we shall not dissipate our energies. We shall live up to our motto "A Magazine of System in Reading."

Our brief news topics in "Highways and Byways" we find popular. Some readers indeed would have the department enlarged; others, shortened. We are of the opinion that the present space devoted to news of the day is generally satisfactory. The "Library Shelf" and the "Round Table" are also old and satisfactory departments. Enthusiastic C. L. S. C. readers would even like the space devoted to "News from Readers and Circles" enlarged. We, too, should like to give this department increased attention and the inclusion of features heretofore in the "Membership Book" will enlarge this feature of the magazine during the coming year. We feel this department serves to bring our readers together in free intellectual intercourse as in a college.



CHAUTAUQUAN subscribers will perhaps be interested to read some of the general criticisms of the course during

the English Year now concluded. Opinions of the books, complimentary on the whole, were many and various. Professor Moran's book upon the "English Government" was the most widely popular, followed by "Literary Leaders," "Rational Living," and "What is Shakespeare?" This last came in for more unfavorable criticism than any other of the four. Yet such are the differences of taste in individuals and communities that some circles found Professor Sherman's book the most stimulating of all those studied. One circle declared: "We all say that if we could not procure another 'What is Shakespeare?' we would not part with our copies at any price." Contrast this with: "Not one of us liked the second book 'What is Shakespeare?' We found it pokey and slow." Even the popular "English Government" found critics who considered it repetitious and declared that all the matter in it was to be found in the first chapter. Happily we are not all constituted alike.

The Circles were requested to name three series of articles or single article in THE CHAUTAUQUAN which had proved most stimulating and instructive. Here, too, the opinions were various and enlightening. The required reading series were as we had hoped the most popular, the preferences being (1) Imperial England; (2) The Reading Journey; (3) The English Men of Fame. Professor Lavell's series was unanimously popular. The Reading Journey by Miss Bates, though popular as the concluding table indicates, ran the gamut of criticism. Many found it delightful; some thought it too much like a guide-book; and one savage masculine critic took offense at the little feminine touches of "shedding hairpins down the wind," etc. "The Stage for Which Shakespeare Wrote," fourth in popularity, also came in for occasional adverse criticism from readers who did not care for archaeological details and the problems of the stage manager.

The following table indicating the preference of the Circles computed under a system of points may prove of general interest:

Series	First	Second	Third	Points
Imperial England	36	9	2	128
Reading Journey	24	14	9	109
Men of Fame.....	4	27	8	74
Stage for Which Shakespeare Wrote..	3	7	11	34
Vesper Hour	1	5	7	20
Highways and Byways.....	1	3	5	14
Library Shelf	1	..	5	8
Round Table	1	..	3	6
Representative English Paintings.....	..	1	1	3
Articles on Social Questions.....	3	3

It is only fair to add that the points accorded the Vesper Hour, Round Table, and Highways and Byways, standard departments of the magazine, afford no fair indication of their almost universal popularity.



The American Year

We believe that the Chautauqua Home Reading Course for the American Year beginning in September, 1907, will be the most attractive ever offered. The books are:

"Newer Ideals of Peace," by Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago; "Races and Immigrants in America," by Professor John R. Commons of the University of Wisconsin; "American Literature," by Professor Katharine Lee Bates of Wellesley; "Provincial Types in American Fiction," by Horace Spencer Fiske, University of Chicago.

The chief supplementary series in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be "As Others See Us, a Study of American Progress in the Light of Foreign Criticism," by John Graham Brooks; and "American Painting," illustrated by reproductions of American masterpieces, by Edwina Spencer. Other features will be a series of studies of famous American Men of Science; Life Stories of Immigrants and accounts of immigrant colonies in the United States; brief sketches of contemporary Americans prominent in the arts and in the work of social amelioration; letters from American College Presidents to the C. L. S. C. readers.

Education: A Life-Long Development*

By President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University

THE man or the woman who has time to read sees today a problem that seems to me almost awful. There is a new flood, a flood of printer's ink, that threatens to submerge the world, and I do not know any bow of promise in the heavens set against it. Perhaps all of you may not realize what a tremendous deluge of printed matter is poured from the press today. Libraries now, instead of conserving everything, have their cremation furnaces, which are sometimes kept pretty active, to burn what cannot be conserved. Look at the four or five thousand daily papers, the innumerable weeklies, the scores of thousands of books that are issued every year. I remember reading how General Logan, when he was a senator, left word with the congressional librarian to send to his house all the important literature on the tariff question. The senator was out of the city for a few days, and when he returned he found his hall and his study stacked full of books, piled up higher than his head. He went to the librarian in despair, who said, "We have only two two-horse wagons, but we shall hope to get through by another week getting the books to your house."

So it is with every topic. If you try to read all there is on any one topic you soon find yourself in a chaos and confusion and perhaps even despair. One of the problems of book sellers is to catalogue and classify, to make lists of the best books, so we shall not be entirely lost; and so we shall be saved from the subtle, insidious and new danger of today of reading below our level. A great many people are corrupted by print. A great many people would be wiser, would be better morally, if it were not for the low grade

*An address delivered at Chautauqua, New York.

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stuff that spawns from the press. The question, therefore, of orientation, of guidance, becomes very important.

There is another difficulty that confronts the reader, when you settle on a good book to know in general what it is without reading it clear through. There used to be an old precept: Read everything you do read thoroughly from cover to cover. That is a dangerous precept. There are scarcely a few score of books in the world that are worth reading in that thorough, minute way. There are some, and they are the great classics in literature. For most literature we need these epitomes. We had a great discussion at one time, in a scientific society to which I belonged, as to whether it was not the bounden duty of every man who wrote a book to append to it, in the compass of a page, a summary, so that those who did not know whether they wanted to read it might discover whether it was really worth their while to read. The scholar today very rarely reads a book. He glances through the index and finds the characteristic passages. There is a new sense needed that will guide the reader to just that important part of a book that he really wants, because to ignore the second-best is today almost a matter of intellectual life and death.

Hence I revere more and more today the body of people who devote themselves to guiding those who want to read so they shall read above their level and be better for their reading, and not worse. There are the newspapers that are ephemeral. There are the weeklies, scarcely less so, though touching more generic themes. There are books that live for five years perhaps, and then pass away to oblivion. But there are the few great works and themes that have in themselves the vitality to live, and that constitute the classic, the secular biblical literature of the world.

There have been men, not only Plato, but many since, who hesitated to print their best thoughts lest they should find minds not prepared for them and so do harm and not good. We do not all realize that there is danger in getting a very big thought into a very small mind. A great many

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of the fanatics of today are those who have wrestled with and obtained a slight hold of a great idea too big for them, and therefore they have done themselves and perhaps others quite as much harm as good.

There was a time—we need to remember that occasionally—when nothing survived that had not virtue. That was before printing. One of the evils that printing has done—which is overshadowed by the good it has done—has been to keep alive a great deal of stuff that ought to have sunk in the stream of time. Before printing, only that which had carrying power vital enough to sustain itself, to be told by story-tellers from generation to generation and rehearsed over and over again till it grew large, and instead of representing the individual soul represented the larger soul of the race,—only that survived. That sort of thing we today know very little of, when everybody who has a thought hastens, often far too prematurely, to put it down in print.

There was a good proposition discussed much in Germany not long ago, that everybody who wrote a big book ought to embody the substance of it in untechnical, popular terms so that everybody could read it. And I remember very well how one of my old teachers, Helmholtz, wrote a big book about psycho-physical optics, and then wrote an article that embodied his ideas in more simple terms. And that is what I should like to have adopted by all our learned men in the universities. I think the popularization of knowledge especially of science is one of the great needs of a democracy. There should be a ready communication between those working on the frontier, whose chief ambition it is to add to the sum of human knowledge, and the great mass of the people who ought to be in sympathetic *rapproch* with these scientific minds.

Chautauqua, and especially the C. L. S. C., seems to be meeting these conditions, and I have come to appreciate more and more the pioneer work that has been done by this circle. I realize that whereas there was very little of this work done in this country, there is now a great deal of it, and that

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many a movement that goes by another name has lit its torch by the fire the C. L. S. C. kindled.

In our schools and colleges there is one great danger that seems to be a peculiar academic disease, and that is to run to technicalities and to subordinate content to form. It seems as though that was almost an iron law everywhere present in our high schools and colleges. What college graduate has not had much of that spirit? We read Homer and do not know what Homer means. We have to sit at the feet of Professor Lavell to find out the essential content. If students had been given that beforehand, even the technicalities would have been clothed with new life. We are in danger in our colleges, of being swamped in the technicalities of grammar and philology and missing the essential point.

As it looks to me, the great achievement of the C. L. S. C. has been that it has prevented arrest in development. There is no danger so great, so universal, as mental arrest and stagnation. When we get through high school or college we are absorbed in other affairs and we never advance or grow. We are more intense in our own special calling or line, but as for general mental growth, we have stopped. Stagnation, arrest, is one of the great dangers. The more we know of antiquity and of the causes of the decadence of ancient races, the more we realize that their decadence is due to just this arrest of development. We know now from the study of the brain that it keeps on growing in those peculiar cells in the third layer which are most closely concerned with mental life, until at least the age of sixty-three, and I suppose when we have a better histology we shall find these particular neurons keep on growing till the very end of life. Senescence, the golden period of life, the crown of age, which used to be symbolic of wisdom, but which is now too often not wise but foolish, that glorious consummation of life we ought to strive for as a people, as family stocks, as a race. We know that there are certain nascent stages in development.

I see the C. L. S. C. has enrolled nearly a quarter of a

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million members. That means mental growth, it means checking this universal tendency to mental arrest—and you cannot have mental arrest without moral arrest. When we know more about the needs of each of these nascent periods we shall be able to fit their needs still better. But the fact that most C. L. S. C. readers seem between twenty and thirty-five is an inspiring thing. That is a time when the soul ought to be sympathetic to all forces. Aristotle said the learned man is a citizen of all times and a spectator of all events. Our lives physically are very narrow, and it is our duty to enjoy, in our own brief life, something of all the good that humanity has to offer. What better maxim for a life could there be?

There is another aspect that impresses me very much indeed as I have read the literature and looked over the imposing list of the work done here. It is a surprising fact to me always, when I see the statistics of the relative number of those who enter college, whose parents also graduated from college. In New England, in twenty-five years after the men graduated, twenty-five per cent. of them were not married, and those who were married have very few children, so there is no college in the land that would not die out very soon if it were recruited only from the children of its graduates. This is a problem of almost national dimensions.

Another thing of the utmost importance is that parents who appreciate the importance of a college education and labor and save that their children may enjoy it, should themselves be kept *en rapport* with the work their children are doing, that they should so be respected by their children when they graduate. There is no sadder sight than to see college graduates who gradually come unconsciously to look on their parents who have not had a college education, with a spirit of superiority. Therefore to every parent it is essential that you should read and study. You have an advantage from age and experience that enables you to appreciate it in a way young people with less experience cannot

do. You can go to the heart of things. It is possible and I believe necessary for the organization and due constitution of the family, for parents to devote some part of their time to reading, to keep in sympathy with and retain the respect of their own children, and to be able to answer questions.

Again, there is the isolation of every life. The world is large. Our country has grown. We are a world power. We are interested in all the great problems of the world. That means an immense mental expansion, and we must see we do not fall below our opportunities. The minds of the men and women of this country ought to have expanded in the last ten years more than in any other decade the world has ever seen. Are we doing it?

I am told, and I can well believe, that the C. L. S. C. has stimulated a great many people first, to send their children to college or resolve to do so when they were old enough to go; and second, it has stimulated a good many young people to go to college. And that is a very good thing. The college needs just that class of people who go with earnestness and desire because they have been smitten with the love of knowledge and the intention to make the most of themselves. We do not want in our colleges so many of these rich men's sons who drift through, and mentally and morally lower the tone of the college. The best blood of our colleges comes from the families to whom it means a sacrifice, from the homes of the middle class. These are the leaders of the country in the future, and it is these that we want in the college.

Then again, there is country life. I can very well imagine, for I was a country boy myself, what a great boon the C. L. S. C. has been to a great many people living in the country, perhaps apart from the libraries and other opportunities, to have a few books which they know competent judges have pronounced to be good and worth reading, and to be able to spend even a few minutes a day in reading these books. If we could only Chautauquanize all the country I believe no better influence could be shed abroad in the world.

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Lastly, it seems to me that there is a dangerous period when young people graduate. There is a kind of sense of finality in a great many places. Often parents feel they have got the absolute by the wool. There used to be so-called "finishing courses." The fact is that a college education is nothing but the tools of work. Graduation is but the college commencement—the significance of that ought to be emphasized. And I am delighted to see that many college graduates are following these courses. I am inclined to think if it has not done any more than to arrest this tendency to finality, it has done a good thing.

I should like to say a single word about what might be the Chautauqua of the future. I cannot but believe that with increasing experience you will enlarge your courses, making them ever better, that you will sometime even have elective courses; that you will come to have courses in education; that the time will come when you will study philosophy and perhaps in this way even comparative religion. If this ideal of Chautauqua should pervade this country, what should we have? I think myself we should have a nearer realization of the educational state embodied in Plato's immortal Republic than the world has ever seen. The great danger here is that of a material civilization. We are often money mad, and that of itself tends to make people against the other side of life. In our age, when life is more tonic than ever before, we can only realize that the best things are not the things that money can buy, but that the spiritual, psychic life is the great work. Then I think we shall realize one great ideal, we shall have a standard of value, we shall be able to see there is nothing in this world that measures every kind of value except this: What does it do to bring men and women to an ever more complete maturity? What is the standard of values? What is the highest thing worth? There is only this test: That which helps men and women to come to ever higher maturity. Test everything—religion, science, art, literature, social organizations by that standard. Let us see to it that we try at any rate, not to cease growing.

Summer Schools and Sunday School

By Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut

WITHIN the last forty years there has arisen a new movement in education, wide in its area and powerful in its influence,—the Summer School.

In a country of such vast extent, such varied elements, and such abounding energy as America possesses, it is not strange that there should be more than one source for this institution, already so great, the Summer School. In fact, we can trace its varied streams up to three distinct origins, each apart from the other two, but all connected with education,—the college, the Sunday School, and the public school. The first impetus to the Summer School came from the college, through Professor Agassiz of Harvard, who in 1873 established the earliest summer school for the study of science at Penikese Island in Buzzard's Bay. The school itself was not successful and was soon abandoned; but it lived long enough to suggest the idea of summer schools and it may stand at the head of the long roll of such institutions.

Entirely independent of the college summer school, arose another type in the same class, at Chautauqua Lake in Western New York, in 1874, only a year after Prof. Agassiz's attempt at Penikese Island. This was the first Chautauqua Assembly, parent of all the assemblies, and a pioneer in the plan of study out of school. The Chautauqua Assembly arose, not from the college, but from the Sunday School. Its joint founders, Lewis Miller and John H. Vincent, were leaders in the Sunday School movement; and they aimed in the Assembly to give instruction and training to Sunday School teachers. The scheme, as planned and accomplished, was to gather a large body of Sunday School workers for out-door meetings, to give a definite course of study in the Bible and in Sunday School teaching, to supplement the class-work by lectures on subjects relating to the Bible, to science, and to literature; to blend with study

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recreation and out-door life, to give an examination and confer diplomas. The plan was carried out to complete success. The enthusiasm ran high, the classes were large, the examination in writing was upon one hundred questions upon the Bible and teaching, and one hundred and seventy-five persons presented papers containing answers, on the closing day of the Assembly; of these one hundred and forty-two received diplomas. The original Chautauqua Assembly was the parent of many similar institutions, and undoubtedly exerted a greater influence upon the movement for summer schools than did any other gathering.

A third origin of summer schools may be found in the Public School. In 1878, five years after the first Harvard Summer School and four years after the first Chautauqua Assembly, a summer school was held mainly for public school teachers at Martha's Vineyard. Its originator and first conductor was Colonel Homer B. Sprague, at that time connected with the public schools of Boston.

Thus there have been three distinct origins for the summer school movement, the college, the Sunday School, and the Public School. These three types can still be traced in different summer schools. There are great summer schools at the universities, as Harvard, Columbia, Cornell, and Chicago. There are Chautauqua Assemblies and similar institutions by the hundred; and there are summer schools where thousands of teachers spend a few weeks in advanced study in their chosen departments.

We are especially concerned in this paper not with the history and progress of summer schools in general, but with the relation of the summer school to religious education through the Sunday School; and for this reason we return to the second of these three sources, the Chautauqua Assembly.

1. Let us notice the development of the summer school in general education at Chautauqua. It began, as we have seen, as a summer school for the training and equipment of Sunday School teachers; very soon after the uniform les-

son movement made better teaching a necessity in the Sunday Schools. There was a regular course of study, written examinations with high standards, and large classes of graduates, who were known as the Normal Alumni of Chautauqua. If the limits of this paper would permit me to give the list of one hundred questions for the normal examination at Chautauqua, in any of those earlier years, they would speak for themselves with regard to their standard; and the classes every year numbered hundreds who passed the examination, besides four or five times as many hundreds who attended the classes, but declined the examination. In the course of years, the numbers coming under the influence of the Chautauqua Normal class could be counted not by the hundred but by the thousand.

But in a very few years the scope of Chautauqua instruction was widened from Sunday School teaching to general education. This change was inevitable, and is not to be regretted by even the most enthusiastic Sunday School worker. A school of languages arose at Chautauqua, and soon the Assembly became a summer college, with classes in almost every department, mental, moral, and physical. The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle was inaugurated, carrying the light of culture to uncounted thousands. As the sphere of Chautauqua enlarged, the relative prominence of the Sunday School decreased; and the Sunday School department became one of the lesser lights at Chautauqua. A normal class is still maintained, but it no longer sends out its graduates in large numbers. Yet it may truthfully be said that the interest in Bible study and Bible teaching is as great as ever in Chautauqua; and it is still an influence for high standards in Sunday School instruction.

2. As an immediate result of the Chautauqua enthusiasm in its early days of the seventies, thousands of teachers and students went to their homes, carrying with them an aspiration for more knowledge and better work in the Sunday School. In their home-schools, and in their local

county, and state organizations they exercise a strong influence for teacher training. The General Secretary of a western state said to me, "These normal graduates of Chautauqua have the faculty for stirring up everybody where they live. If they don't always succeed in starting a normal class, they generally contrive to make their Sunday Schools uncomfortable without one." The demand for teachers who have caught the Chautauqua spirit, made necessary the establishment of normal classes in many Sunday Schools; and the Chautauqua Normal course grew up, having its headquarters at the Chautauqua center. Twenty-five years ago there were hundreds of such classes, with tens of thousands of students; and in addition many individual students, not attached to classes, but studying alone. The course was at first for two years, of books to be studied and other books to be read, and with examinations sent from the Chautauqua office. Subsequently, the course was lengthened to four years, as it remains at present. Its numbers have greatly diminished, not because there is less interest in Bible study and teacher-training, but because the work was taken up by the State Sunday School Associations, notably in New York, in Illinois, in Massachusetts, and now in almost every state of the Union; and especially in the Canadian provinces, for the Canadians have always been earnest Bible students. The states now provide courses of study, examinations, and diplomas, and there are thousands of classes pursuing regular studies under their direction. Recently this work has been united and centralized under the auspices of the International Sunday School Association. An office in Chicago gives general supervision over all the field, sets up standards, recognizes courses and examinations, and provides a common diploma for all State Associations.

3. Chautauqua did not long stand alone as an Assembly for religious instruction. In a very few years the Chautauqua model was followed in New England, in the Middle West, beyond the Mississippi, and even on the Pacific Coast and in the Gulf States. Chautauqua Assemblies sprang up

like magic everywhere; and they have continued to grow and increase. It is now thirty-four years since the first Chautauqua Assembly was held; and last year there were in the United States more than three hundred gatherings bearing the name of Chautauqua. Each of these is independent of all the others. The mother Chautauqua has not the slightest control over her offspring, and perhaps half of the number of Chautauquas do not deserve the name, for they have forsaken the Chautauqua principles of education. But after making all deductions there remain perhaps a hundred Chautauqua Assemblies where the Chautauqua idea dominates; and in that idea the study of the Bible and the training of Sunday School teachers is a strong element. In all the best Chautauquas there are classes for the training of Sunday School teachers and the number attending them must run into the thousands. All these assemblies are summer schools, and their work acts directly upon Sunday School instruction.

4. There is one class of summer schools which demands special notice. Although an outgrowth of the Chautauqua movement, it has, too, developed such an individuality as to stand by itself. This is a group of summer schools held especially and only for Sunday School training. They are called "Schools of Methods for Sunday School Work." The oldest of them has been held regularly at Asbury Park, New Jersey, for fourteen years. Other schools of methods are at Winona Lake, Indiana; Monteagle, Tennessee; Northfield, Massachusetts; Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, and in other places. A list of fourteen such summer schools was published in the *Sunday School Times* of May 26, 1906, announcing their summer sessions for that year. In these schools, no attempt is made to hold entertainments or to have "popular" features. Study is the order of the day, an enrollment is made, and every meeting is a meeting for work.

5. Another department of this work must not be forgotten, that of text-books for the instruction of Sunday

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School teachers, and those who may be teachers in coming years. This subject belongs to the Summer School because the demand for these text-books and the supply of that demand began at Chautauqua, was recognized throughout the Assembly field, and through the Summer School reached the Sunday School. The reference is not to books on the international Sunday School lessons; but books especially prepared for the general training of Sunday School teachers, fitted for their use. Sunday School teachers are not like other teachers, trained in the normal school or college; they are non-professional; they do not as a body read either Latin, Greek or Hebrew; they are not familiar with the technical language either of Bible study, of theology, or of education. They must have text-books that are clear, simple, and free from technical terms, and the books prepared for their work both as students in classes and teachers of classes must be so planned, systematized, and expressed, that an ordinary layman can understand everything in them. The greatest of all arts in teaching is to know what to leave out; to see and state a few great things, and omit all minor matter.

The teacher of teachers to whom we all owe the most is John H. Vincent, that Nestor among Sunday School workers. His outline lessons taught for years before Chautauqua was instituted, and after 1874 put in print as leaflets, set the pattern for all successful teacher-training lessons. And the circulation of lessons designed for training-classes of Sunday School teachers has been, and still is, very large. The one series with which I am best acquainted has sold an average of twelve thousand copies per year for the last twenty years and now circulates more than fifteen thousand copies annually. There are other courses by H. M. Hamill, Geo. M. Pease, E. M. Fergusson, and others, which have a wide circulation. These books are not for reading, but for study, and the great demand for them shows that many are studying the material and methods of Bible instruction. This body of literature for the instruction of the

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Sunday School teachers is the direct outgrowth of the Chautauqua summer school movement.

There is a question which might be asked in this connection: Should Sunday School pedagogy be provided for in the program of the regular summer schools, such as are now held in many places? There are some difficulties in the way, which must be overcome, if plans in this direction are to be made successful. One difficulty lies in the obtaining of satisfactory teachers, alike in the departments of Bible study and Sunday School methods of teaching. Sunday School teachers are not like other teachers, a professional, special class. They are laymen, who without financial compensation give a part of their time to teaching in the Sunday School. They are not familiar with the terminology either of advanced Bible knowledge, or of pedagogy. When theological professors lecture on the Bible, they are almost certain to assume a knowledge of the Bible which teachers do not possess, and to use technical terms that teachers do not understand. The language employed in most books on the Bible by specialists, and in most books on education, has no meaning to ordinary Sunday School teachers. The instructors must be able to express themselves simply in the language of everyday life, with a clear outline of thought, if they are to deal with Sunday School teachers; and such instructors, with the ripe scholarship of the specialist and the plain language of the people, it is hard to find.

Another difficulty lies in the expense of most summer schools. These are patronized largely by teachers who attend them in order to obtain knowledge and training which will bring to themselves a financial return. The teacher takes the training, for instance, in physical culture for two seasons, at a summer school, and then teaches it, making it a means of profit. But the Sunday School teacher expects no compensation for his services, however efficient or laborious they may be. The vast majority of teachers in the Sunday School are young women, whose financial resources are

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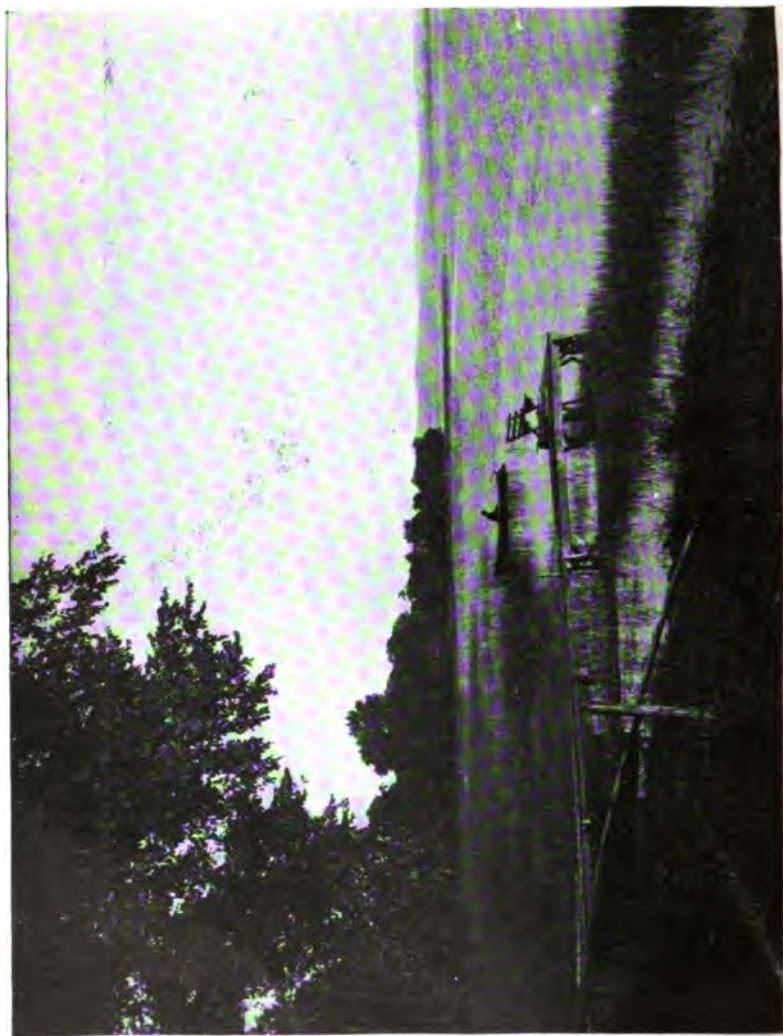
limited, and who can spend very little on special courses. The regular summer school with its specialized instruction and its course to be paid for, is generally beyond the purse of the Sunday School teacher. And yet if the right teachers can be secured, and the summer school should be advertised in periodicals which reach the Sunday School constituency, there might be many teachers to take advantage of its opportunities.

Many of the Chautauqua assemblies are attended by Sunday School teachers, and more would be if good courses of instruction were provided, and adapted to their needs. If in two hundred centers every summer, classes of teachers were taught, as they are now taught in nearly a hundred assemblies, twice as many teachers would receive instruction and inspiration to better work. The Sunday School at the opening of the twentieth century stands far in advance of its position fifty years ago; and another generation may bring it still nearer to its lofty ideals as a school in the word of God.





A Bit of Woodland Scenery
Chautauqua, New York



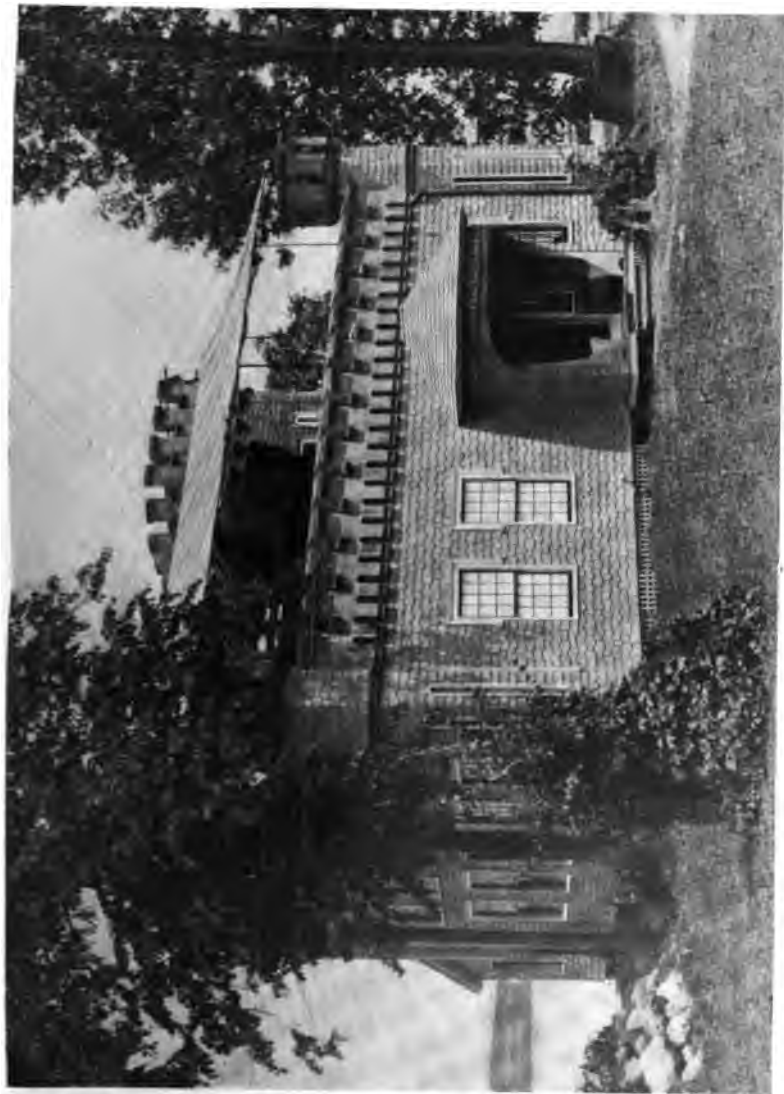
On the Shores of Chautauqua Lake, Chautauqua, New York



Boys at Archery Practice, Chautauqua, New York



Chautauqua as Visitors Seldom See It—The Pier House in Winter Time



The Men's Club, Chautauqua, New York



The Hall of Philosophy, Chautauqua, New York

Social and Ethical Ideals in Summer Assemblies

By Frank Chapin Bray

SUMMER assemblies, popularly and indiscriminately called "Chautauquas," represent many things to many minds. Expressions of opinion often increase in dogmatism with the square of the phrase maker's distance from personal contact or study. The political paragraphers hear that Senator LaFollette before large audiences on a circuit of Western Chautauquas, reads to the electorate the actual record of votes on important measures in the Senate Chamber, thus throwing consternation among his senatorial colleagues. Straightway they suggest the novelty of electing a president forsooth by the Chautauqua method. A British magazine writer gets over as far as Boston, thinks he discovers there a veritable craze for culture, and proceeds to generalize about the whole United States, alleging that beyond Boston the "earnest ones of the earth congregate in vast tea gardens of the intellect such as Chautauqua." On the other hand, that essential American, Doctor Edward Everett Hale, insists that until one has seen the original Chautauqua he does not know his America. Lyman Abbott observes that the Chautauqua movement is, "next to the church and the public school system, among the forces that are working for the education, the elevation, and the ennobling of the American people." And Mr. Roosevelt, while president of the United States, thinks it worth his while to come back to speak to an audience at the Mother Chautauqua, adding, from personal knowledge, that this Chautauqua movement is "the most American thing in America."

The fact is, of course, that there are Chautauquas and "Chautauquas." The student will discriminate between Chautauqua Institution and different assemblies, whether they assume the Chautauqua name or not.

In the words of Bishop John H. Vincent, one of the founders of the original Chautauqua Assembly at Chautauqua, New York, "The Chautauqua Assembly opened, in 1874, as a Sunday-School institute, a two-weeks session of lectures, normal lessons, sermons, devotional meetings, conferences, and illustrative exercises, with recreative features in concerts, fireworks, and one or two humorous lectures. It was called by some a 'camp-meeting.' But a 'camp-meeting' it was not, in any sense, except that the most of us lived in tents. There were few sermons preached, and no so-called 'evangelistic' services held. It was simply a Sunday-School institute, a protracted institute held in the woods. We called it the first time 'The Chautauqua Sunday-School Assembly.' The basis of the Chautauqua work was in the line of Normal training, with the purpose of improving methods of biblical instruction in the Sunday-School and the family."

Thirty years later the Chautauqua Assembly had become Chautauqua Institution, a chartered system of Popular Education, conducting three important branches: an Annual Assembly of eight weeks, thirteen Summer Schools (six weeks) and Home Reading Courses throughout the year. By the terms of its charter any financial margins go back into the maintenance and enlargement of the work, control being vested in a virtually self-perpetuating board of trustees, who administer the plant and endowments for educational purposes. The past two years have been the most successful in the thirty-three years life of the parent Chautauqua.

Literally hundreds of Chautauquas, so called, have dotted the map of the states since the original Assembly was established. Perhaps a half dozen have celebrated their twenty-fifth anniversary. Some forty of them belong to an International Chautauqua Alliance which aims to keep up a high standard of excellence. The yearly births of new assemblies usually exceed the deaths, depending more or less

on general conditions of prosperity; the latest verified list January 1, named 344.

At one end of the scale then, we have 3, 5, or 7-day summer lyceum courses calling themselves Chautauquas, established on some kind of local guarantee by talent bureaus. One receipt for this patent medicine type of Chautauqua would read: Take at least two high priced spell-binders, a band, an animal show, a magician, a stereopticon, a quartet, an elocutionist, a preacher for Sunday's sake. Shake well before applying; dose, as long as people will stand it morning, afternoon and evening, at hours fixed by the trolley company interested in the Chautauqua on the side.

From ephemerality, and from philanthropically coated investment schemes, second hand vaudeville, embalmed humor, etc., however, the scale ascends to a permanent educational plant, administered by trustees not for profit, offering a carefully constructed program, with due proportions of instruction, entertainment, and recreation for specified periods in residence; conducting summer schools for certain high grade class work; and placing emphasis upon following up a season of lecture suggestions by systematic reading at home.

I have referred especially to the means and methods of sustenance as these necessarily determine so largely the social and ethical ideals shown by assemblies. In the absence of some form or other of endowment there is a relation between admission fees and attractions which has a way of fixing standards. The fact that high standards have been often and long maintained by many assemblies owing to the sacrifices and contributions of high minded and large hearted people in various sections of the country should not be overlooked in any survey of the movement.

Allowing for the usual percentage of perversion of any good thing to disguised commercial purposes in a commercial era, the spread of Chautauqua Assemblies worthy the name is of profound social significance for the very reason that it represents an ideal above commercialism. The As-

sembly assumes, cultivates, and meets a demand of the people for higher, broader, better life. Chautauqua ideals, not economics, have developed an Institution and a national movement of perennial value.

The Assembly is strikingly democratic. Consider the conditions of a ten-days' camp of a thousand tents in Nebraska, with some three or four thousand occupants. They dwell under camp authority and regime, literally on the same level socially speaking. For what they think they get out of it, they subject themselves to a daily program both of plain living and high thinking. The same democratic spirit characterizes the cottage and hotel community at Chautauqua, New York, with an average population of 10,000 to 12,000 people for a two-months' season. Their daily living is under regulation or schedule comparable to that of a college campus, in order to secure certain common ends. The Institution offers a curriculum of lecture courses on the university extension model; Biblical, musical, artistic, practical, physical, and other cultural lines of electives; with that healthful out-of-door environment which tends to minimize artificial and conventional distinctions. Groupings of necessity come about according to the subjects or activities individuals are interested in, not by so-called "society" standards. Kindergarten, boys' and girls' clubs, men's clubs, women's clubs, athletic club and the like, indicate certain groupings of the Assembly population, young and old. Church denominational houses and organization headquarters indicate regroupings. Enrolment in summer school classes in scores of subjects; class meetings and reunions of Chautauqua Circle home readers; lectures in series, special recitals and interpretative readings, induce other regroupings. On the public platform men and women of known reputation with a message of importance to the public, and popular entertainments of high grade, are calculated to bring together nearly everybody in the summer community at least once each day. The theory is that a population too large to be thus brought together will defeat one

of the chief ends of the Institution: preservation of a democratic community spirit similar to what is known in academic circles as college spirit.

Some of the differences between an Assembly of the highest type we are considering and the ordinary convention, estimated in terms of social service, are seen to consist of (1) the residence feature; (2) the varied provisions for voluntary grouping and regrouping of adults and children according to individual interests, and regrouping them again according to common interests; (3) the opportunities for informal personal conference; (4) the freedom accorded to interplay of educational influences rather than to organized "evangelization" in behalf of particular propaganda; (5) absence of any spoils of office delegations; (6) the creation of an atmosphere of sane, all-round life, interesting to the youth and the mature person alike because directed by experts; (7) a community controlled and protected for the purpose here outlined, and, as the phrase goes, "near to nature;" (8) the convention focuses the crowd on a "cause;" the assembly focuses many influences on the crowd in succession. The program is for both living and thinking; a daily schedule for every member of the family, neglecting neither the child nor grandfather and grandmother. Choice of interests may be normally exercised. Exercise of the will to choose is encouraged. And the best Assemblies follow up aroused interests with provisions for broad and systematic reading at home.

In some sections of the United States, the Assembly affords the one opportunity of the year to get into touch with the personality of leaders of the great social and industrial movements of our day. This is different from the impersonal touch of the printed page published for or against any cause in which the people may be interested.

Assemblies which attract more than local attendance from a radius of a hundred miles, perform an important social service in bringing together families representing different sections of the country, to dwell together for a

time, eat at the same table, exchange points of view in walk and talk from day to day, readjust themselves to lines of common interest despite provincial differences. Increasing southern patronage of northern assemblies for example has had notable influence upon people of importance in their respective communities north and south.

By no means the least of the assembly's socializing influences may be observed in the voluntary observance of customs and regulations necessary to secure the best results from such community life, even at the expense of pet personal habits, preferences or prejudices. People fall into line for the common good.

In this brief survey of assembly ideals, what shall we specify further, as social or ethical? The Chautauqua impulse is nothing if it is not ethical. "The theory of Chautauqua," says Bishop Vincent, "is that life is one and that religion belongs everywhere. Our people, young and old, should consider educational advantages as so many religious opportunities. Every day should be sacred. The school house should be God's house. There should be no break between Sabbaths. The cable of divine motive should stretch through seven days, touching with its sanctifying power every hour of every day. . . . People should be guarded against that baleful heresy, that, when they leave the hour of song, prayer, and revival power, and go to homely service in shop or field, they are imperilling spiritual life, as though only so-called sacred services could conserve it."

Even the poorest type of Chautauqua, so-called, is, ethically considered, an improvement over the beer garden—cleaner, more decent, less maudlin. If making much of and carrying on some kind of daily Bible study every season is to be taken as indicating ethical quality, this attribute is as universal as any other that could be named. Among managers of the best assemblies the quest for the right kind of Bible men for platform and class work is sincere and unceasing. Certainly a higher ethical standard of life for each

member of the whole family is the distinctive Assembly ideal.

That church members and their families predominate among steady assembly patrons is usually taken for granted. There are a number of assemblies frankly conducted on denominational lines and presenting programs specialized in that respect. The tendency, however, appears to be in the other direction; organizations of business men have been established to conduct them, on the appeal of the public good they do; in other cases denominational control is declared to be purely nominal. At Chautauqua, New York, seven denominations maintain headquarters and arrange social and religious meetings of their own, but all join in the public services of Sunday worship and study. Representative preachers of various denominations are selected for successive Sunday morning sermons during a season. This inter-denominational comity, established from the beginning, has been credited with wide-spread influence upon other assemblies and church relations in general.

Without prescribing mooted details of Sunday observance the last session of the International Chautauqua Alliance passed strong resolutions against Sunday assembly excursions and accompanying desecration of the day. Many assemblies close their gates on Sunday.

I venture to assert that from the ethical standpoint the standard of assembly programs in general shows an advance, possibly as much from quickened public conscience in our day as from deliberate planning on the part of most program makers. In the search for permanent hold upon their constituency, managers say that something better than mere entertainment must be provided. No vital ethical problem is likely to escape presentation, pro and con, at these assemblies. Thus in varying measure the true Chautauqua Assembly is a forum, a clearing house of ideas, an observatory, a social crucible, a vacation school of all-round life, for every member of the family, a center of ethical and educational forces.

Chautauqua in Great Britain

By Kate F. Kimball

Executive Secretary of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

THE Chautauqua movement in Great Britain is an interesting example of the way in which national individuality asserts itself when it borrows from another country some significant idea. In this case, education of the out-of-school people is the fundamental object which both the American and the English organizations have in view. In America the method is that of a four years' course—"the College Outlook" supplemented by special courses; a magazine containing part of the required and other collateral reading, notes, programs, etc.; local headquarters at Chautauqua, New York, with a summer assembly in July and August and recognition of certain affiliated summer Chautauquas in many parts of the country each of which is a more or less permanent organization meeting summer after summer.

In England the idea has found expression somewhat differently: Chancellor Vincent's article in the *Contemporary Review* for 1887, entitled "Chautauqua—a Popular University," was the impulse which led Dr. J. B. Paton of Nottingham, an English philanthropist, to attempt a similar work in his own country. But conditions in England differed from those in America and two years elapsed before his patience and enthusiasm were rewarded by the establishment of the National Home Reading Union.

This British Chautauqua Circle groups its members in four sections, offering book lists for readers who want to take up special courses; for those who prefer a general course; for young people both in and out of school; and, recently established, an introductory course which selects books from the general course book list and is intended for those who have less time and money than the general course requires. The fees for membership in these sections vary

from eight pence for the introductory course to three shillings six pence per year for the special course section. This fee entitles each member to a monthly magazine of some twenty-four pages containing announcements, short articles upon the various books to be studied with review questions and news of the society. Each article on a required book is contributed by some one especially qualified to direct the student, often a professor from Oxford or Cambridge or other educational institution. The members secure their own books and read as individuals or in circles just as Chautauqua readers do in America.

A very important and recent development in connection with the work of the N. H. R. U. is the coöperation of the Board of Education which has encouraged the formation of reading circles among the senior classes in the schools instead of the ordinary reading class so that the children may know how to find direction in their reading when they leave school. The N. H. R. U. urges the teachers of senior classes to become members of the Union and in that case accepts the scholars as members and furnishes the magazine of the Young People's Section at a special low rate. The same privilege is offered to Sunday School teachers.

The summer gatherings of the N. H. R. U. show how completely the idea of a summer Chautauqua has been adapted to English needs. For several years, beginning with the formation of the Union in 1889, an Assembly was held at Blackpool in Lancashire but even at this early stage the possibility of numerous summer gatherings was impressed upon the leaders of the movement. The problem is being worked out in most interesting fashion: England is a compact country crowded with points of historic interest. So the N. H. R. U. hit upon the very effective plan of what an American might call a "progressive" Summer Assembly. For a few years the Assembly was held for ten days at Blackpool but in 1892 a change was made to Bowness in the Lake District which seemed especially suitable in view of the reading which members of the Union had followed

during the year. Dr. Hill, Master of Downing College, Cambridge, gives an interesting glimpse of the program of this session:

"We had been reading Geology and Botany of Flowerless Plants in our Science Course last winter. This year, those who take the course in English Literature will study the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries. Where better than on Windemere could we observe the effects of the agencies by which the face of the country has been sculptured? Where else could we find so many moisture-loving plants? What other district in England is so rich in associations of Wordsworth. Southey, Coleridge, and other writers of this period? Our days commenced at half-past nine with a short lecture on Geology by Mr. Marr, followed at once by a second discourse of half an hour on Botany by Mr. Massee. At eleven we started on foot or in steamboat or coach, as the case might be, to explore the neighborhood, our lecturers pointing out every object of interest, or calling us to halt where the rocks made a convenient resting ground, while they explained the larger features of the district. Of course our rambles carried us by Rydal Water and Grasmere, and we realized as we stood in the little garden of Dove Cottage the conditions under which Wordsworth did his best work, the surroundings by which his thoughts were shaped. . . . At half-past five each day we reassembled in the lecture room to listen to a tune-ful lecture by Dr. Bailey upon the Lake Poets. . . . On other evenings we were favored with enthralling lectures by the teachers and preachers of the district. Mr. Llewellyn Davies, vicar of Kirkby Lonsdale, discoursed on Robert Browning; Mr. Rawnsley, the vicar of Crosthwaite and Lake Poet of this later age, upon the literary associations of the district; Mr. Collingwood, Ruskin's *fidus Achates*, upon its artistic associations; and rich stores did these successors of the heroes whom we came to worship bring to our intellectual feast."

The late Professor Herbert B. Adams of Johns Hopkins University, who was for many years a member of Chautauqua's "Educational Council," attended in 1896 the session of the N. H. R. U. Assembly held at Chester. His experiences as published in, the *Baltimore Sun* show the impression made upon an American:

"One of the most interesting educational experiences I enjoyed," said Dr. Adams, "was in connection with the summer meeting of the National Home Reading Union, which this year met in Chester, that old Roman town on the Welsh frontier.

"There assembled from all parts of England members and friends of local reading circles, originally established somewhat upon the Chautauqua model through the agency of Dr. J. B. Paton, of Nottingham, who is still the leader of the Association. It was a most interesting and pleasing sight for an American observer who had frequently lectured at Chautauqua, to see the English counterpart of that American institution.

"The meeting opened with a reception or *conversazione*, given in the town hall by Mr. Yerburgh, member of Parliament from Chester. He and his wife did much in social ways to make the week's session a pronounced success. They entertained visitors and lecturers at a country house near Chester, a delightful English rectory, with spacious glebe and gardens. The Bishop of Peterborough, the Rev. Dr. Creighton, gave the introductory lecture on the 'Moral Aspects of History,' a very stimulating discourse which provoked much criticism and discussion, as the paradoxical Bishop doubtless intended it to do. Dr. Creighton was followed by a succession of interesting lecturers on history, art, and literature, morning and evening, throughout an entire week.

"The afternoons were usually devoted to country excursions, for example, to Hawarden Castle, the home of Gladstone, to Eaton Hall and park, the most magnificent ducal estate in England, and to an old Cistercian monastery in North Wales. It was a singularly instructive experience for both English and American visitors to hear monastic architecture described by one of the leading archæologists of England, Mr. St. John Hope, with the Abbey of *Vallé Crucis* and the Cathedral of Chester for object-lessons and classrooms. I shall not soon forget the pleasure I enjoyed in viewing those wonderful old cloisters under such guidance and in such pleasant company.

"It impressed me as an eloquent sign of the times to see in that old Norman quadrangle, where Dean Howison and his daughter were lately buried, the printed announcements of the National Home Reading Union posted in the form of great broadsides upon the sacred walls of the cathedral. * * *

"In some respects the English have greatly improved upon the American Summer School. They meet almost always in some place of historic interest and make good use of local institutions, academic, municipal and ecclesiastical. They draw freely from the social and historic environment, but here, of course, England excels America."

Leamington was the choice for the annual gathering of 1906 which seems to have been fully as successful as those

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of other years. Chautauqua readers who have journeyed thither with Miss Bates this year can realize something of the privileges of their fellow students in Britain. But aside from the summer Assemblies with lecture programs and excursions to historic spots, the N. H. R. U. is doing splendid work in promoting summer holidays for working people in some of the most charming spots in England. This work began with the friendly excursions organized by a Congregational minister in Lancashire, Rev. T. A. Leonard, who realized how many of his young people were demoralized by their holiday trips. He organized a rambling club for Saturdays—then a week and holiday in the Lake District. Then Dr. Paton, the leader of the Chautauqua movement in England, discovered the possibilities of this holiday plan, and in coöperation with the National Home Reading Union the Coöperative Holidays Association was formed. The society now has centers in Great Britain and Switzerland. At many of these centers, are charming guest houses. Expenses are reduced to the lowest possible figure, and during the season weekly excursions are made from each center, according to a previously announced program. Lecturers accompany each party. These excursionists have been in the habit of taking up Sunday collections which help to provide a fund by which needy persons can be accommodated at the Guest Houses before and after the summer season. Professor Adams, who visited one of these C. H. A. Centers, gives the following experience:

"Another interesting sign of the times in England is the intelligent and generous scheme, conducted under the auspices of the National Home Reading Union for the purpose of affording English teachers and workingmen a pleasant, profitable and inexpensive week's vacation in some cool seaside resort like Whitby, in north-eastern England, or Edinburgh, the fairest city of Scotland. I was invited to both places, but, on account of the Cambridge conference on University Extension, at which I had to speak, was able to observe the working of the plan in Edinburgh only.

"There, in one of the newly established college dormitories at St. Giles, were gathered week after week successive companies

of fifty or sixty intelligent men and women under the supervision of cultivated leaders of the Home Reading Union. The visitors devoted their time to excursions and sight-seeing in and about that wonderful old town of Edinburgh, so rich in historical associations as well as in natural beauty. Stirling castle, Melrose and Dryburgh Abbeys, Roslyn and Abbotsford were also visited.

"One week the leader of the party was Dr. Paton's son, who now teaches the classics in the old class room once occupied by Dr. Thomas Arnold, at Rugby. I was invited to join one of the excursions of this party over the Pentland Hills. On another occasion I spent an evening at St. Giles in a pleasant company of young people, who were chaperoned by a charming lady from Bolton. They sang well from their own little song books, prepared especially for these summer holidays, and some interesting accounts were given of work done in local reading circles. They called on me for a speech and I embraced the opportunity to describe Chautauqua to its English cousins."

This brief survey of significant features of the Chautauqua movement in England must not close without reference to another important educational gathering known as the British Chautauqua which held its twelfth annual meeting at Aberystwyth in Wales in 1906. This Chautauqua was organized in 1895 as a Sunday School Movement, aiming to "further the ends of Sunday School work by rendering the teacher more efficient." It adopted at the outset the Chautauqua plan of prescribed books for the study of the Bible and related topics, with suggestions for the student, to be taken up during the year with provision also for examinations. The Assembly after meeting in various localities seems to have established itself on the present site where it has already met for a number of years. Its summer program includes the names of men and women eminent in both England and America.

Some Characteristics of John Wesley

By Carl H. Grabo

A new and excellent life of John Wesley by Professor Winchester calls deserved attention to that neglected and formidable work, Wesley's "Journal," the record of the rise of Methodism and the life story of its founder.* The great size of the "Journal," some 1,400 large and closely printed pages, is sufficient to deter all but the enthusiastic; and the dreary wastes of uninteresting record almost overwhelm the occasional items of personal and entertaining matter. The persistent reader will agree with Professor Winchester that Wesley missed the opportunity of producing a great social document, a history of the English people in the eighteenth century. Such a history Wesley was qualified to write; for fifty years he traveled in England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales not less than 4,500 miles each year, associating intimately with the middle and lower classes of society. He could, when he chose, describe social conditions with some vividness, but only too seldom did he find it worth his while to enter the field of the historian. His interests were elsewhere; he had no desire for literary distinction, and he had little instinct for purposeless observation and description. Throughout his career he did very few things without a definite motive and he would doubtless have regarded writing the history of his age as a flagrant misuse of a precious portion of his life. He had a great man's appreciation for the value of time and on his long horseback journeys he utilized every spare moment, not in observation, but in reading. He rode with a slack rein and a book in his hand. An entry in his "Journal" records, "History, poetry and philosophy I commonly read on horseback, having other employment at other times."

Nevertheless, though inadequate as a social document, the "Journal" tells more than the story of the Methodist movement. There are passages which reveal the tastes and

*The "Life of John Wesley," by C. T. Winchester, pp. 301. The Macmillan Co.: New York. \$2.00.

prejudices of their author, and from these it is possible to construct a portrait of Wesley, the man, the scientist, and the scholar. His was an interesting and peculiar personality.

The Oxford wit who dubbed Wesley and his companions of the "Holy Club" "Methodists" because of their methodical habits of life and study, hit at once upon the salient peculiarity of John Wesley, a man to whom the charms of idleness and fortuitous adventure seem never to have appealed. He would have been a fit subject for the missionary efforts of Robert Louis Stevenson and would have read that tract "An Apology for Idlers" with both edification and indignation. This very inability to loaf and invite his soul robs his character of charm, but it explains his inhuman capacity for work. In 1725 upon his election as Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford, Wesley wrote, "leisure and I have parted company" and forthwith he laid out a scheme of study the mere perusal of which causes mental fatigue: Mondays and Tuesdays he devoted to Greek and Latin; Wednesdays to logic and ethics; Thursdays to Hebrew and Arabic; Fridays to metaphysics and natural philosophy; Saturdays to oratory and poetry; Sundays to divinity.

Soon he "resolved to have only such acquaintances as would help him on the way to heaven," and cut himself loose from casual social intercourse at Oxford, and this, too, notwithstanding that he was a charming talker and much liked. He merely had no time for frivolities. A few years later, together with his brother Charles and a few others, he formed the club which brought upon its members the name "Methodists" and his time became subject to even further division and regulation. Certain hours he set aside for theological discussion, and yet others for visiting the sick and prisoners in the Castle, the Oxford jail, thus entering upon the practical work among the poor and the unfortunate which he continued throughout his life.

The methodical habits so early formed at Oxford were

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never discontinued. Throughout the remainder of his days Wesley rose at four in the morning and commonly preached at five. He experimented and found the minimum of sleep necessary to maintain him in perfect health and he early acquired the power of sleeping when and where he liked. His waking hours he utilized in a rigorously economical manner; hours for meditation and prayer, hours for preaching, hours for writing and study,—all were expended with care and effect. One cannot but admire the tenacity of purpose in a man who could so dispose of his life, but one is not moved to pay the compliment of imitation. Such a scheme is too rigorous and passionless and its defects as well as its virtues are manifest throughout Wesley's work. Even the letter he wrote his father declining to apply for the charge at Epworth is divided, like a Brobdignagian sermon, into twenty-six heads, and gives twenty-six reasons, mostly bad, for his failure to comply with his father's wishes.

The investigator is relieved to find that the letters written to Mrs. Pendarves, a charming widow who later became the celebrated Mrs. Delaney, are not quite so formidable, though decidedly stiff after the labored fashion of the time. The lady is addressed as "Aspasia," Wesley signs himself "Cyrus," and the subject matter is chiefly of a religious nature with an odd personal note running throughout. The adaptability of the versatile Mrs. Pendarves in maintaining such a pseudo-romantic relationship for two years was certainly of a rare order. Three years after the correspondence had lapsed, she even sought to renew it, but Wesley's interest had cooled and he declined to reanimate the never robust romance.

The odd streak of susceptibility in Wesley is one of the entertaining contradictions of his nature. Sentimental episodes bob up at unexpected moments throughout his career. All the more promising ended in nothing, but the most unfortunate culminated in matrimony, the lady in the case being a widow, a Mrs. Vazeille, who nursed him through an illness. Professor Winchester describes her as



John Wesley. From the Painting by Williams.



John Wesley. From the Painting by Romney.

"a vulgar woman with a tendency to hysteria," and Charles Wesley records that when his brother informed him of his intended marriage, "I was thunderstruck—I refused his company to chapel, and retired to mourn with my faithful Sally." Charles had prevented other threatening alliances by well-timed interference, in one instance hastily marrying the lady to a former suitor. But in this case he had no early intimation of his brother's intentions and no opportunity to interfere.

The marriage proved a tempestuous one, and when his wife on one occasion deserted him, John Wesley wrote in his "Journal," "*Non eam reliqui; non dimisi; non revocabo.*" But she returned without calling and Wesley seems to have loved her to the end. That he could do so in his maturity instances his growth in charity and kindness. In his youth he could not have commanded the forbearance and wisdom to endure domestic infelicity.

Indeed the most instructive thing in the "Journal" is to observe the mellowing process of time upon a nature which was at first rather hard. In the days of his unsuccessful Georgian venture as minister of the colony and missionary to the Indians, Wesley was too bent upon his own salvation to have a wise understanding of other people. Perhaps there is no better instance of this early deficiency in judgment than his conduct in a love affair with an attractive young lady of Georgia, a Miss Hopkey. He seems to have been attached to her, but before making her a definite proposal weakly yielded to a friend's solicitations and brought the question of his intended marriage before a meeting of the Moravian elders, with whom he was, at that time, intimate. The elders disapproved and Wesley tamely accepted their decision, remarking, "The Will of the Lord be done." Miss Hopkey upon hearing of this unflattering disposition of her affairs did not wait for Wesley's statement of the case but hastened to engage herself to a Mr. Williamson whom she married five days later.

This prompt action should have revealed to Wesley

some of the more obvious characteristics of weak human nature, but it did not. He proceeded callously to an even worse error in judgment, and in his capacity as priest punished the high-spirited Mrs. Williamson for a slight breach of church discipline. It is not to be supposed that he was prompted to this by pique but such was the charitable interpretation of onlookers and Wesley became unpopular in Georgian society. This was not the Wesley who, a few years later, found himself and ruled wisely, albeit autocratically, a great spiritual society. Charity of the truest sort and the understanding of others came only with time.

Only as he encountered the difficulties incident to his profession of itinerant preacher, did Wesley begin to display his fine powers. He would have been a great general, for he combined courage, coolness, and tenacity of purpose to an unusual degree. The record of his early trials and his frequent encounters with brutal and hostile mobs is full of stirring incident. His escapes from danger were almost miraculous for one who always remained passive in the hands of his enemies. Such indeed was the course of wisdom, for Wesley had not the physical strength to resist violence. He was a little man, five feet six inches in height and of a slender though active figure, weighing when in health 122 pounds. With such a slight body but with perfect courage and self possession Wesley came almost untouched out of riots and assaults. On one occasion a man rushed upon him with a club threatening to crush him. When the assailant met the cool eyes of the little preacher he dropped his weapon and passing his hand over Wesley's head remarked only "What soft hair he has." Perhaps Wesley owed such miraculous escapes in part to the striking beauty of his eyes and features, qualities apparent in the painting of him by Williams.

As the good results of Wesley's labor became obvious to all unprejudiced observers he was accorded protection by the magistrates, and during the latter half of his life he was seldom molested by the mobs. For this increased

security the number and size of the Methodist Societies together with their growth in wealth were, of course, largely responsible. Immense audiences greeted him almost daily as he journeyed from one end of England to the other and he not infrequently spoke to as many as twenty thousand people. At the age of 86 he, on one occasion, addressed an audience of 25,000 in the natural amphitheater at Gwen-
nap, Cornwall. The vocal strength and control necessary for holding such vast masses of auditors must have been extraordinary, particularly when it is remembered that he preached daily, and on Sundays as often as five times; also that on occasion his sermons ran to the great length of three hours. Wesley has recorded the care with which he pitched and modulated his voice and the pains he took to develop the same skill in his preachers. It is said of him that in one instance he was heard perfectly at seven score yards, a remarkable distance for open air preaching.

The demands which such exertions made upon his strength led Wesley to follow a most careful course of life. Always interested in medicine and indeed well qualified to be a professional physician, he kept careful watch of his own health and strength. As he advanced in years, the entries under his birthdays express his own surprise at his undiminished vigor. At the age of sixty-three, at a time when Whitefield, who was but fifty, was worn out and dying, Wesley writes: "I find no disorder, no weakness, no decay, no difference from what I was at five and twenty; only that I have fewer teeth and more gray hairs." At sixty-eight he writes that since his threatened consumption at the age of fifty, a time at which he expected death and composed his epitaph, his health has been better than it was forty years before. At seventy-one he declares his strength the same as thirty years before and his sight and nerves better. He attributes his strength to (1) rising at 4; (2) generally preaching at five in the morning, "one of the most healthy exercises in the world;" (3) never traveling less than 4,500 miles a year by sea or land. At the age of

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seventy-three he adds yet other reasons; ability to sleep at any time, and evenness of temper—"I fret at nothing." At eighty-five he observes that his sight is a little affected and his memory not so good as it has been. But he is still active and his mind is clear. At eighty-six he thinks he is growing old. He can read small print only in a strong light and he "walks slower than some years since." "My memory of names is decayed until I stop to think a little." When he is nearly eighty-seven he writes: "I am now an old man, decayed from head to foot. My eyes are dim; my right hand shakes much; my mouth is hot and dry every morning; I have a lingering fever almost every day; my motion is weak and slow." He was not quite eighty-eight when he died, retaining control of his mental powers until the last.

The remedies applied to his occasional disorders excite some surprise. But it is safe to say that they caused little injury even if not possessed of the powers Wesley ascribed to them. When threatened with a fatal consumption he applied to his side "stone brimstone powdered, mixed with white of egg," and recovered. Another entry reads: "Cured hoarseness in six hours by applying bruised garlick to the soles of the feet—my never failing remedy." Again: "Calling on a friend I found him just seized with all the symptoms of a pleurisy. I advised him to apply a brimstone plaster and in a few hours he was perfectly well." This is indeed hoisting the Adversary with his own petard.

He did not confine himself altogether to simple remedies. He was early interested in electricity in its application to medicine and in 1753 he speaks of electrifying a woman for a paralytic disorder and observes that "she found help." He adds that he has known others cured by the same means of pains in the stomach and side. In at least one instance he made use of electricity with good effect to relieve angina pectoris.

This interest in electricity is of a piece with his curiosity in all extraordinary phenomena. His was not the scientific spirit which prompts the painstaking observation

of minute and seemingly commonplace facts. He had neither the time nor the inclination for such observation and, moreover, modern scientific methods were then scarcely in their infancy. But all cataclysmal occurrences, great storms, earthquakes and the like, moved him to excited speculation. He read widely in scientific works of a general nature, but here again his limitations as a scientist are soon manifest. He was credulous of the improbable and yet at the same time utterly unable to accept scientific facts which did not fit in with his preconceived theological theories. He took the position that every statement in the Bible must be interpreted as literal fact, or otherwise the book as a whole could not be credited as inspired by God. He condemned all scientific theory or fact which did not accord with his own Biblical interpretation, and all science which appeared to coincide with his theology, he was inclined to credit without further justification. Moreover his thirst for the new and the marvelous led him to believe any striking theory which was plausibly stated. No more extraordinary instance of this defect in judgment can be found than the following entry in the "Journal:"

"Read Mr. Jones' ingenious 'Essay on the Principles of Natural Philosophy.' He seems to have totally overthrown the Newtonian principles; but whether he can establish the Hutchinsonian is another question."

His credulity is most apparent in the realm of psychic phenomena. To this he had a natural bias, due in part, doubtless, to the strange occurrences in his father's house at Epworth when John Wesley was a boy at school. The incidents which he later recorded from the testimony of witnesses seem well substantiated, for the Wesleys were a sane, sensible and well educated family. The phenomena were of a trivial but persistent sort and consisted chiefly of loud knocks, disturbances at prayers when the king was named (the ghostly intruder appears to have been a Jacobite), shutting doors, etc. The disturbances continued for two months and the family soon ceased to pay much attention to them.

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But they served to direct John Wesley's interest to the mysteries of psychic phenomena and this interest never deserted him. Pages of the "Journal" are filled with testimony he collected on every hand, regarding second sight, apparitions, dreams, etc. Many of the instances are plainly the products of disordered brains; others are perhaps worthy of note by the Society for Psychical Research, a body of which Wesley would have been an interested member had it existed in his day.

Wesley himself was of too normal and sane a mind to be subject to strange visitations but he believed in them firmly none the less and clung to the then obsolescent belief in witchcraft.

"Read Mr. Baxter's book on apparitions. It contains several well attested accounts but there are some I cannot subscribe to. How hard it is to keep the middle way; not to believe too little or too much."

* * * *

"I read Mr. Granvill's 'Relations of Witchcraft.' I wish the facts had a more judicious relater; one who would not have given a fair pretense of denying the whole by his awkward manner of accounting for some of the circumstances."

* * * *

"I cannot give up to all the Deists in Great Britain the existence of witchcraft till I give up the credit of all history, sacred and profane. And at the present time I have not only as strong but stronger proofs of this from eye and ear witnesses than I have of murder; so that I cannot rationally doubt of one more than the other."

* * * *

"They well knew (whether Christians know it or not) that the giving up witchcraft is, in effect, giving up the Bible; and they know on the other hand if but one account of the intercourse of men and separate spirits be admitted, their whole castle in the air (Deism, Atheism, Materialism) falls to the ground. I know no reason, therefore, why we should suffer even this weapon to be wrested out of our hands. Indeed there are numerous arguments besides, which abundantly confute their vain imaginations. But we need not be hooted out of one; neither reason nor religion requires this."

Wesley had no belief in the inviolability of natural law. He believed divine aid accorded him on various occasions either in direct response to prayer or, unsummoned, to supply some pressing need. On one occasion his runaway horses stopped the carriage on the very brink of a precipice

and Wesley gravely recounts, under several heads, his firm belief that he was accorded angelic assistance. Frequently he prayed for an immediate change in the weather. Upon returning from his last trip to Holland his ship was becalmed—"I judged we should not get on unless I preached, which I therefore did. . . . Afterwards we had a fair wind for several hours."

Throughout his entire life he maintained the practice of reading and study which had won him a fellowship at Lincoln. The same scrupulousness with which he maintained his dress in the neatness becoming a gentleman he devoted to his scholar's habit. His scholarship was, it is true, of a rather diffuse sort and consisted chiefly in a wide and miscellaneous reading. He was a good classical scholar and read his Greek and Latin poets as he did his Shakespeare and Milton. He knew enough Hebrew to write a Hebrew grammar and he had a reading knowledge of French, German, Spanish and Italian. He read widely in scientific works, particularly in the fields of medicine and physics, and was, of necessity, well versed in theology and philosophy. History, travels and archaeology he seems to have regarded almost as light reading. The thorough-going way in which he put in every odd moment may be indicated by the works he devoured when convalescing from an illness: Turretin's "History of the Church," "Life of Mr. Philip Henry," "Life of Mr. Matthew Henry," "Theologia Germanica," Laval's "History of the Reformed Church in France."

Quotations from the English poets are not infrequent in the pages of the "Journal," and he required the boys in the Kingswood school to memorize passages from Milton, as an educational exercise. He seems to have read also the chief English writers of his own day,—Prior, Swift, Butler, Sterne, Pope, Thomson, Gray, Mason, Hume, Law, Byrom, Horace Walpole, Dr. Johnson, and their French contemporaries, Rousseau, Voltaire and Montesquieu. The range of his reading was surprising but scarcely as extraordinary as his literary judgments. These last, reflecting alike his abilities

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and his limitations, of themselves form an admirable portrait of his intellectual nature:

"Read the greater part of the *Odyssey*. It is better than the *Iliad*. It is not, indeed without its blemishes; among which, perhaps, one might reckon his making Ulysses swim nine days and nights without sustenance; the incredible manner of his escape from Polyphemus, (unless the goat was as strong as an ox) and introducing Minerva at every turn without difficulty worthy of such intervention."

* * * *

"Having given a second reading to 'Fingal' rendered into heroic verse I was thoroughly convinced it is one of the finest epics in the English language. Many of the incidents are deeply pathetic and the character of Fingal exceeds any in Homer, yea, and Virgil, too."

* * * *

"Read Mr. Hoole's translation of Tasso's '*Jerusalem Delivered*,' allowed, I suppose, by most judges of poetry to be not much inferior to the *Aeneid*. But I wonder Mr. Hoole was so imprudently faithful as to present Protestants with all Tasso's Popish fooleries. Those excrescences might have been pared off without the least injury to the work."

* * * *

"Read Poems by Miss Whately. She had little advantage from education but an astonishing genius. Some of her elegies I think quite equal to Mr. Gray's."

* * * *

"Read over Mr. Gray's works and his life wrote by Mr. Mason. He is an admirable poet, not much inferior to either Prior or Pope; but he does not appear upon the whole to have been an amiable man. His picture, I apprehend, expresses his character; sharp, sensible, ingenious; but at the same time, proud, morose, envious, passionate and resentful. I was shocked at the contempt with which he more than once speaks of Mr. Mason; one full as ingenious as himself, yea, full as good a poet; (as even '*Elfrida*' shows, as much as Mr. Gray despises, or affects to despise it); and over and above possessed of that modesty and humanity wherein Mr. Gray was so greatly deficient."

* * * *

"I read Mr. Byrom's poems. He has all the wit and humor of Dr. Swift, together with much more learning, a deep and strong understanding, and above all, a serious vein of piety."

* * * *

"Read over Dr. Beattie's ingenious '*Inquiry after Truth*.' He is a writer quite equal to his subject, and far above the match of all minute philosophers, David Hume in particular; the most insolent despiser of truth and virtue that ever appeared in the world."

* * * *

"Read the works of Mr. Thomson, of whose poetical abilities I had always had a very low opinion, but looking into one of his tragedies, '*Edward and Eleonora*,' I was agreeably surprised. The sentiments are just and noble; the diction strong, smooth and elegant; and the plot conducted with the utmost art, and wrought

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off in a most surprising manner. It is quite a masterpiece and I really think might vie with any modern performance of the kind."

* * * *

"I casually took a volume of what is called 'A Sentimental Journey through France and Italy.' *Sentimental!* What is that? It is not English; he might as well say *Continental*. It is not sense. It conveys no determinate idea; yet one fool makes many. And this nonsensical word (who would believe it?) is become a fashionable one! However, the book agrees full well with the title; for one is as queer as the other. For oddity, uncouthness, and unlikeness to all the world beside, I suppose the writer is without rival."

With the greater part of these rigorous judgments posterity has not seen fit to agree and one is forced to the conclusion that as a literary critic, Wesley was not a success, despite his wide learning. His taste was not sure and he was the victim of prejudices. His opinions of his great French contemporaries, Voltaire and Rousseau, are peculiarly biassed for he was utterly unable to divorce his literary and moral judgments:

"Read Voltaire's 'Memoirs of Himself.' Certainly never was a more consummate coxcomb."

He criticises a Dr. Reed for admiring "that prodigy of self conceit, Rousseau,—a shallow, yet supercilious infidel, two degrees below Voltaire! Is it possible that a man who admires him can admire the Bible?"

"Read 'Rousseau upon Education.' But how was I disappointed! Sure a more consummate coxcomb never saw the sun. How amazingly full of himself! As to his book it is whimsical to the last degree; grounded neither upon reason nor experience. The advices which are good are trite and common, only disguised under new expressions. And those which are new, which are really his own, are lighter than vanity itself."

Wesley indeed presumed to advise on the education of children notwithstanding that he was childless himself and seems to have possessed no natural talent for understanding child nature. The accounts he gives of the work at Kingswood are certainly not prepossessing. He appears to have converted the scholars yearly and to have been annually pained at the impermanency of his previous efforts. His pages, too, contain many instances of precocious piety in unhealthy children who invariably died young. Medical expert though he was, he seems never to have associated these religious phenomena with physical disease.

Errors of literary judgment and inability to appreciate the nature of children point alike to Wesley's greatest defect: an over-emphasis upon the intellect and a lack of true imagination and sound esthetic sense. A passage of self analysis—rather a rare instance with Wesley—shows his own recognition of this weakness:

"I never relish a tune at first hearing, not till I have almost learned to sing it; and as I learn it more perfectly I gradually lose my relish for it. I observe something similar in poetry, yea, in all the objects of the imagination. I seldom relish verses at first hearing; till I have heard them over and over they give me no pleasure; and they give me next to none when I have heard them a few times more, so as to be familiar. Just so a face or a picture which does not strike me at first becomes more pleasing as I grow more acquainted with it; but only to a certain point; for when I am too much acquainted it is no longer pleasing. O, how imperfectly do we understand even the machine we carry about us."

The lack of esthetic sensibility is most apparent perhaps in his failure to enjoy natural scenery. He had the eighteenth century appreciation of palaces and cultivated gardens but seldom does he indicate a liking for the beautiful English scenery through which he constantly journeyed. The hills and cliffs of Devon and Cornwall seem to have left him unmoved. He speaks somewhere quite in the manner of Pope of a "horrid mountain." In another instance he is slightly more appreciative: "I rode over the Malvern Hills which afford one of the finest prospects in the kingdom." The melancholy thoughts aroused in him by the sight of beautiful woods are of an order of theology happily almost extinct: "And must these be burned up? What will become of us then if we set our hearts upon them?" At Dover he remarks merely that Lear's Cliff is not so terrible as in Shakespeare's description.

Bird songs he noted occasionally and on a trip to the Isle of Man observes that the birds sing there all the day instead of in the morning and evening only, as in England.

He was slightly interested in music but the musical genius of the Wesley family seems to have been concentrated in the sons of Charles Wesley, the famous organists. John Wesley liked good congregational singing and fostered it

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in his societies. Oratorios he mentions occasionally and of Handel's "Messiah" he records that "in many parts, especially several of the choruses, it exceeded my expectations."

For painting he had only a moderate liking, suffering from the Philistine distrust of all portrayal of the nude. He observed on one occasion, that the paintings in the Glasgow college library were not hung to advantage, and at another time he seems to have been pleased with Romney's portrait of him. "Mr. Romney is a painter indeed. He struck an excellent likeness at once; and did more in one hour than Sir Joshua did in ten."

Professor Winchester is inclined to grant Wesley but little sense of humor, or if any, of the driest kind, and this despite the testimony of a friend that Wesley when in college was "gay and sprightly with a turn for wit and humor." Wesley's humor was indeed dry, but he was not, I think, notably deficient in all sense of the incongruous. Several passages in the "Journal" indicate a sense of humor, and the infrequency of formal entries of a lighter sort is no proof that he was not often subject to humorous impulses—doubtless kept in thorough subjection. Two or three passages may be cited in his defense, though it must be confessed that the seeming humor may be in part due to the modern reader:

"I talked with one who, by the advice of his pastor had very calmly and deliberately beat his wife with a large stick till she was black and blue, almost from head to foot. And he insisted it was his duty so to do because she was surly and ill-natured; and that he was full of faith all the time he was doing it; and he had been so ever since."

* * * *

"I was a little surprised at the acuteness of a gentleman here, who, in conversation with Col. Barry, about late occurrences, said he had heard there was a people risen up that placed all religion in wearing long whiskers; and seriously asked whether these were not the same who were called Methodists."

Apathetic auditors in his congregations aroused him to amused comment and surely this is sufficient proof of any man's sense of humor: "I preached at Clayworth. I think none was unmoved but Michael Fenwick; who fell fast

asleep under an adjoining hayrick." He also notes with evident relish the gentleman who would not come to hear him preach lest he "should say something against the fighting of cocks."

It may be said of Wesley that in his own writings he usually deserves the praise he accords another in that "he writes both like a gentleman and a Christian; with mildness, good-nature, and good manners." To this we may add that he writes, too, like a man making a digest of a government report. He is clear but almost painfully concise. His scholarly productions are models of brevity. Among other things he wrote short grammars of English, French, Latin, Greek and Hebrew; a concise English history; a short Roman history; works on medicine and electricity; and summaries and digests of various works for use either in the school at Kingswood or the Societies. He cheerfully forced his flock to purchase these productions and used the money thus obtained for the most worthy objects,—to furnish medicine and food for the needy or to support homes for the aged and indigent. He himself lived with the utmost frugality and died possessed of scarcely anything. He gave not only his money to aid others, but what must have cost him more, the pleasures of social intercourse. Boswell records Johnson's comment: "I hate to meet John Wesley; the dog enchants me with his conversation, and then breaks away to go and visit some old woman."

There was little of the radical or theorist in him. He was a loyal supporter of the king both in '45 when Prince Charlie invaded England and in '75 when the American Colonies revolted. His "Calm Address to Our American Colonies" takes the ground that the Americans have no cause for revolt inasmuch as they are as well represented in Parliament as are many districts in England. This is not a very trenchant argument, but it is sufficient for such a loyalist as Wesley. He seems never to have regarded social and political reform as highly important and he devoted his own efforts entirely to the moral regeneration of the individual

citizen. The king, however vicious and incompetent, he always regarded as above reproach. When George II, that immoral and incompetent sovereign, made the world purer by leaving it, Wesley wrote in his "Journal," "when will England have a better Prince."

Of monarchs sufficiently removed in time he ventures an occasional criticism. Mary Stuart he regarded as unjustly treated by Queen Elizabeth. The Gowry affair he believed was engineered by James I for political reasons. Richard III he considered the victim of the malicious Tudors. And finally he classed Cromwell and Henry VIII together as equally un-Christian—certainly an astonishing juxtaposition.

The same conservative spirit kept him a loyal member of the English Church throughout his lifetime. He foresaw sadly that the Methodist Societies would sever their church connection after his death, but he did his best to prevent the break. It was only as a last resort and in opposition to his brother Charles that he finally took upon himself to ordain as presbyters two lay preachers who should direct the work in America. Although he defended his action in this instance it is not certain that in the face of his brother's criticism he did not later regret it as hasty.

Himself a gentleman of good family Wesley never openly criticized an aristocratic form of government, but his long association with the middle and lower classes had nevertheless its effect upon him. His successes lay within those classes and he always viewed rather cynically the presence of gentlemen and ladies in his congregations. He believed them, with reason, to be actuated chiefly by curiosity in coming to hear him. Whitefield, whose innovation of field preaching he had reluctantly adopted, was for a time more successful with the upper classes. But the movement among the gentry was not so lasting or important as in the lower classes. "I would like to preach to the poor and have others convert the rich," said Wesley.

It was his great mission to reform and spiritualize the miners, the artisans and the small shop-keepers of England.

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And it was the reward of his work that during his long lifetime he witnessed the growth in numbers and in power of his Societies. Conversion, followed by a more industrious life, transformed many a poor man to a rich, and yet Wesley regarded with some apprehension the too great material improvement he had wrought. Spirituality and riches he justly regarded as uncongenial bedfellows.

In thus regenerating great masses of the English people Wesley came face to face with evil social conditions. It was not his nature as we have seen to advocate such theoretical reforms as were interesting France, but he did accomplish moral reforms. He early condemned alike the iniquitous slave trade and the vile and inhuman penal system. He practically destroyed the favorite Cornish professions of wrecking and smuggling. And he did a great work in checking the corruption and bribery prevalent at elections. An entry in the "Journal" reads:

"I spoke severally to all those who had votes at the ensuing election. I found them such as I desired. Not one would even eat or drink at the expense of him for whom he voted. Five guineas had been given to W. C. but he returned them immediately. T. M. positively refused to accept anything, and when he heard that his mother had received money privately he could not rest till she gave him the three guineas, which he instantly sent back."

Exerting his influence thus to mitigate the evils of his time Wesley did his part, a great part, in laying the ethical foundations for the social and political reforms which became the great work of the succeeding century, and which have recently received fresh impetus in our day.

Wesley has been characterized by some as the greatest Englishman of the eighteenth century. Such an estimate is doubtless of little value for the reason that there is no commonly accepted standard of absolute greatness by which to measure alike the poet, the soldier, the statesman, the reformer, and the religious leader. But that Wesley was one of the great men of his time few will deny. Almost single handed he inaugurated and maintained a religious movement of far reaching influence. That movement he directed

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wisely albeit autocratically, and he so infused with life the organization which he had invented and put into operation, that upon his death, the work, in the hands of others, lived and developed. Into the great purpose of his life he threw his best energies and power. His peculiarities and inconsistencies, his credulities and narrow prejudices, his lack of true imagination and sound esthetic taste were not sufficient to mar his social usefulness. They served merely to humanize a character which without them would have seemed unduly formal and precise, too entirely the product of that eighteenth century which interests and yet repels the student of today. himself the product of a more romantic and joyous age.



How I Became a Trained Nurse

By E. M. M.

I am of Irish-American parentage and first saw the light in western Massachusetts. In my tenth year I began as a wage earner in a cotton mill in western Pennsylvania to which state my parents had gone when I was five years old. Here I worked through the summer, and when my health would permit, for I was a rather delicate child, I went to school in the winter. I kept this up for two or three years and then left school entirely.

After that I worked at anything I could get, cared for children, worked in a rag shop, printing office, tobacco shop, woolen mill and last in a silk mill. I had always an intense desire for knowledge while little or no way of gratifying the desire. As a child I attended two Sabbath Schools for the sake of getting library books from each.

When I was about sixteen my father rented a small farm near the city, where he raised fruit and vegetables for the nearby market. I had to work on the farm through the summer, and in the winter worked in town to earn my clothing. One winter I did general housework in a small family, whose entire library consisted of a family Bible and Shakespeare's works in three volumes. As my evenings were free, I asked and obtained permission to read the books. And what a feast it was! No more lonely evenings for me that winter.

Becoming tired of farm life, and being old enough to work for myself I went to a factory town, in another state, and got work in a silk mill at six dollars per week, three dollars of which I paid for board, leaving three dollars for dress, church, and all other expenses. The work was light and clean, the room comfortable, and the foreman kind and considerate.

After I had worked there a few years, I saw that in such work there was no chance of bettering myself in any

way. I did not like the idea of spending all my life there and getting little more than a bare living and growing more and more like a machine, as the work called for little more than quickness of hand, leaving the mind free to roam where it would. In the town was a good public library, where, by the payment of a small sum monthly, I could get all the reading I could make use of. In one of the magazines, I came across something about trained nursing and became interested at once. I looked it up, but found that the educational standard was quite beyond me. Although I had a good fund of general knowledge my text-book knowledge was very limited and as I wanted to be a nurse I began to study evenings with that end in view. One winter I attended writing school three evenings in the week. With a friend I took the Chautauqua course for two years. Then my friend and I bought a Webster's Unabridged Dictionary. Previous to this when I saw or heard a word I did not understand I would write it down, and when I went to the library would look it up. One day I found an old English Grammar that had been discarded by one of my landlady's children. I took it apart and every day took a leaf of it with me to work. There I put it in the small open drawer of a table nearby and as I walked up and down before the frame on which I worked I would take a sentence with me, repeating it until I learned and understood it. I did this until I went through most of the book. In the meantime I applied to a hospital training school but was rejected on account of my size. (I am but five feet, one inch in height and weigh 105 pounds.) I tried another school and was accepted.

My friends tried to discourage me; they said I would never get on; that I was too small and would never be able to stand the work. Then they would ask, "Do you think you will like it" and I always answered, "It is not a question of like or dislike; I am going to stay if I am kept, and it won't be my fault if I am not."

Some time before in anticipation of going to the train-

ing school I had been saving money to have to use while there and saved eighty dollars. About three months before I was to enter the school I took typhoid fever. It was a mild attack, but by the time I was well and strong my money was about gone, so when it came time to enter the training school I had to borrow part of my car fare from a friend.

When I entered the training school all my earthly possessions were contained in one medium-sized trunk; in my pocketbook was one dollar and thirty cents and I owed three dollars and fifty cents. I got through my two months' probation and was accepted as a pupil nurse. It was a proud day when I could write to my friends that I had been accepted and had gotten my cap (the probationers do not wear caps). I did not expect any flowery beds of ease kind of time, and did not have it, but I got along with my lessons, lectures, ward work as well as any and better than some, served the full term with only part of one day off duty from illness, and graduated with my class and got my diploma and badge.

I have been very successful both in my private and public work. I have a comfortable home that I have been able to provide for myself and those dependent upon me. I have had good health, as I early learned that a woman who couldn't care for her own health, wasn't fit to care for others. In all these years the Universal Father has been so good to me that I have never wanted work when I could do it, or needed money badly. When I was earning six dollars per week I began then giving a tenth to help where it was needed in my church and out of it. I have kept it up and in some way the other dollars seem to go farther.



A Prophet's Dream of a "University of the Universe"

IN the year 1893 a modern prophet embodied his dream of international peace in a very striking article which was published in the *Contemporary Review* for December of that year. When this article was written, deep skepticism of permanent peace movements prevailed not only in diplomatic circles, but among large numbers of people whose only hope of peace lay in a vast equipment for war. Yet this nineteenth century dream of a "University of the Universe" was in reality a foreshadowing of the actual possibilities of the present Hague court and his "Institute of International Law" built and equipped by American capital is already being realized in Mr. Carnegie's Temple of Peace. His picture of the University of the Universe is quite convincing in its suggestion of what may be done even by people of alien races and tongues when the spirit of human brotherhood once becomes dominant. So rapidly have the events of the past few years brought before the nations of the world their common interests that such a scheme of international fraternalization can no longer be considered visionary.

The article which is entitled "The Strasburg Commemoration" is in the form of a letter written to his fellow students at home by a Scottish student who has been sent to Strasburg as the representative of a Scotch university. The letter bears the somewhat indefinite date, May 2, 19—. *Dear Fellow-Students:*

The Commemoration is over, and I snatch the first free moment to thank you again for electing us to represent you here,

and to express our regret that you could not all be present in person at a celebration the like of which the world has never seen.

It is evident that the events of ten years ago will not easily be forgotten here. We were children then, and far from the seat of war; but even we remember the awful tension of anxiety, the sense of impending immeasurable catastrophe, the breathless waiting for the explosion that was to shatter Europe to pieces. We remember how the news was devoured from day to day; how day by day we seemed to see the hosts of men swarming to the foot of the Alps and Vosges and taking their places for the fight. It seemed to come home to us as no war had ever come before; the children talked of nothing else in the nursery, nor the people in the street. A sort of horror settled over us, an unrelievable horror and dismay. But those who were to take part in the struggle felt this horror more than any. Brave men as they were, it seemed to crush the bravery out of them. For it was to be a war under new conditions which seemed to make everything worse; it was like going out by hundreds of thousands to be murdered in cold blood. A few might die fighting, the old way, in the shock of the *melée*; but everybody knew beforehand that whole regiments must be doomed to perish where they stood, not amidst the roar of artillery and the smell of powder and the flashing of the steel, but mowed down under a clear sky, and almost without a sound, by cannon miles away. Till the Day of Judgment these Germans and Frenchmen will never forget that pause of expectation.

Nor will they forget the sensation produced by the news of the Queen's two telegrams, addressed simultaneously to the Emperor and the President of the Republic, praying for three days' delay before the commencement of hostilities, and promising that within that time two British plenipotentiaries should reach the frontier, bearing proposals for arbitration. * * *

Oh, those three days! From men and women and children—from those who never prayed before—from the heart of that intense suspense of all the nations—there surged up to Heaven one spontaneous multitudinous continuous burst of prayer. * * * "Our Father" was the form that the petition mostly took. "Our Father . . . Thy kingdom come . . . Forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors . . . Deliver us from evil . . . For thine is the power and the glory. . . ."

Of course there were some who derided and blasphemed. But as the days went on, and the sense of peril grew, and the general emotion gained on all, the scoff died upon their lips. The idea of Christian brotherhood, the universal brotherhood of men, seemed to have suddenly forced itself on men's minds, as vivid,

as real, as alluring, and compelling as it was in the days of the primitive Church. Christ had once more, for us and for our salvation, come down from heaven.

Then follows a graphic description of the arrival of the British plenipotentiaries, the further suspension of hostilities for eight days, at the end of which peace was signed, and the dramatic scene of the reading of the proclamation of peace by the German Emperor. The two great armies of France and Germany stood facing each other until the conclusion of the proclamation when they formally saluted and withdrew. He continues:

This was only ten years ago. But what a change has come over the attitude of the nations since then! France has never grudged the ransom she gave, nor the colonial sacrifices she made, for the citizens who were then restored to her. Germany has gained, not lost, by the magnanimity which has given her an inviolable frontier, and lifted from her shoulders the crushing weight of her armaments. And all Europe gains by the neutralization of Strasburg, with its vast *banlieue* now thickly built and peopled; for the historic Free City of Strasburg bids fair to become one of the greatest living cities of the world. Her intellectual supremacy has already asserted itself, rising like a beacon over the continent of Europe.

As to Strasburg University, we must describe it when we come, for it is impossible by letter. It is not too much to say that it is the University of the universe. All subjects are taught in all languages. Professorships supported out of the International Endowment Fund—which was opened, at the suggestion of America, the year after the peace, and to which Britain, France, Germany, Austria, Belgium, Holland, Sweden, Spain, Switzerland, Italy, Greece, Roumania, Servia, and Bulgaria all contribute—are held by professors appointed year by year by the universities of those countries. There is no regular curriculum. Each professor teaches his own subject—the thing he knows and loves; and the best men prepare their best for their "Strasburg year." It is their great opportunity; they sum up the results of their life's work in their year's work here. They lecture not merely on what they know, but what they think. And this has given a great impetus to philosophical literature. There are more works of pure thought; and the thought is more daring yet more deliberate.

The students, like the professors, come for a year. They come when they have finished their studies and passed their examinations at home; they come for culture pure and simple, and take

up whatever they like; there is no control. The rows and rows of new houses along the immense boulevards that occupy the site of the fortifications are almost all colleges or halls—great clean bright houses, with handsome common rooms on the ground floor and small sets of private rooms above. There is no distinction of nationality; as a rule, several European countries are represented in each college. In the one in which we are staying there are six Frenchmen, six Germans, four Englishmen, three Italians, and a Swede. For six months they have been living here in the same house, meeting in the public rooms, and dining in hall together every evening, and they get on capitally all together. At the table the conversation is mostly in French, but interspersed with other languages. The students say they all understand one another for the most part, and no one goes away without having acquired at least one language.

They have learnt another thing, too, which I hardly know how to describe. They seem somehow older than we do. Not that they are wanting in gaiety and light-heartedness—you never saw fellows so brimming with fun; but they seem to know such a lot of things we leave out of count altogether. You would think they had been all over the world, and seen cities, and men, and all the rest of it. We feel quite small beside them—like country cousins come up to see the sights. It is perfectly true what they say, "*L'annee de Strasbourg vaut la tour du monde.*"

The curious thing is that these "one-year Strasburgers" keep their national characters as strong as ever, if not stronger. England has no Englishmen more English than these, Paris itself no Frenchmen more French. Among so many foreigners everybody has to be the more himself, and to show himself for what he is; there is no tendency to cosmopolitanism; it is rather an effervescence of nationalities. Only there is some common quality evolved, in addition to the peculiar quality of each—a something quite impossible to define. It is not the spirit of this nation or of that; perhaps it is what we shall come to recognize as the European spirit.

Yes, the European spirit; I suppose that is what people bring away from Strasburg University. And it goes through everything. The history professors here, for instance, treat history in a larger way, without prejudice, with a sort of understanding sympathy, a natural respect for everybody. They look beneath the surface, and see, under all the rivalries and animosities, an unconscious working together towards a common object—the best for each, which is the best for all. Perhaps in time this coöperation will become conscious and voluntary. While you are here you seem to think it will.

You must understand that Strasburg University is Strasburg.

There is not room for much else. Fancy how the place swarms with its 30,000 young fellows of twenty-three or twenty-four, going to and fro from lecture to lecture! But you must not imagine that the University is simply so many hundreds of lecturers delivering so many thousands of lectures. It is a great deal more than that. All sorts of institutions here are understood to be educational, and are made so. There are the theaters, where the masterpieces of every country are performed by native actors in their own language. Half the leading theaters of Europe are sending their best actors to Strasburg for a week in the year. The actors say they get such an audience here as they get nowhere else—so responsive, so intelligent, so enthusiastic. They are as proud of playing before a *parterre* of nationalists as ever Talma was of playing before a *parterre* of kings. Then there is the permanent exhibition of machinery, where new inventions are sent as soon as they are perfected from all parts of the world. There is the vast reading-room with its three tiers of galleries, where the recent publications of all countries lie open on desks against the wall. The books are changed every month, and the monthly catalogue is offered gratis to every comer. To go through these galleries is like making the tour of the human mind. Then there are the art galleries, where you survey the painting and sculpture of all countries and of all schools for the current year—the “Strasburg year” again, you see. It is a selection of the very best of the year’s productions, chosen from the best exhibitions in each country, and lent by the artists, who are paid for the loan out of the International Endowment Fund. The expenses of the theaters, exhibitions, and reading-room are defrayed out of the same fund. This is spending money as it ought to be spent. The fund was some few thousands to begin with; now it is a quarter of a million; and it is constantly increasing. The Endowment Fund also assists the innumerable churches that have sprung up here, representing every variety of the Christian creed. They are all of them crowded, I am told, at the hours of divine service. The University recognizes all alike, and sees beneath the difference of dogma the unity of faith. Here, again, one notices the same thing that I remarked just now in speaking of the evidence of national character. In this universal mingling everybody holds his own, and is far more jealous of it than when at home. Many a student who never went to a place of worship at home makes a point of attending his national church here. They tell us, too, that by the curious tendency towards harmony in difference which the free play of differences seems to produce here, the clergy of the various churches seem all to seek and dwell upon the thing they have in common. And the thing they

have in common is just the divine reality, the gospel of the grace of God, so often lost in the artificial overgrowth of creed and ritual, but here resplendent over both, and through both. So that just as out of the mingling of national characters, there is springing up what we may call a European character, so out of the mingling of the religions of all lands there seems to be disengaging itself, more and more simply and perfectly, the pure and undefiled religion of our God and Father.

Another institution which forms an integral part of the University is the "United States Law-Court," which was opened early this week, and which we visited the very day of our arrival. The founders are two rich Americans, who clubbed together to contribute a million sterling by way of endowment. The building cost £100,000. The interest of this American Fund, as it is called, goes to maintain an Institute of International Law, which occupies the principal part of the building, and where the most eminent professors of that science hold forth in all languages—and not only the most eminent professors but any one who has anything to say. The idea of the founders is, that statesmen and diplomatists, men of practical experience in European affairs, should avail themselves of the Institute as a platform for propounding their ideas. The pediment of the principal facade bears the inscription: "From two citizens of the United States of America to the future citizens of the United States of Europe." I must add that within the building there are several spacious halls reserved for International Congresses of all sorts—scientific, economic, hygienic, and so forth.

"The United States of Europe" is, after all, but a step towards "The Parliament of Man, the Federation of the World." But things go so fast nowadays that there is no knowing where they will stop. The laying of that spectre of the great war was an enormous stride—we can hardly imagine how great. With the dispelling of the long nightmare of international distrust so many obstacles to progress have been removed. The war budget is a thing of the past. The armies are little else but schools of discipline and patriotism. Soon people will have forgotten that they ever were anything else. Gradually but surely the spirit of trust and good-will is invading every department of human life; and we begin to realize that men were not made to be enemies, rivals, and robbers, but allies and fellow-workers.

But I have not told you how the Commemoration went off yesterday.

Peals of bells woke us, vibrating and reverberating through the clear morning air; the streets and squares and the cathedral steps and porches were crowded with people hurrying to early morn-

ing prayers. Then came orations in a number of different languages by the more eloquent professors; and then the crowds turned out into the streets and poured along the boulevards. The air hummed with voices; the flags of the nations hung out from the windows, the colours glowing and flashing in the sun.

Just two minutes before eight o'clock a sudden flare of electric light broke out from the foot of the great cross on the steeple, and made the air above the crowded Platz seem to throb and scintillate with pearly light. A minute later, rockets went up and fell again, showing the colours of Alsace, Germany, and France. The signal was followed by a moment of breathless silence, every face, white in the vivid light, turned upwards toward the tower. In another moment the bells shed out a lovely peal, and broke into the well-known hymn of the Emperor William II, "Heil Dir im Friedenskranz." The tune, of course, is the same as that of the Old Emperor's hymn, "Heil Dir im Siegeskranz." As the bells ceased the voices took it up, and sang the hymn straight through. It was a wonderful homage, this homage of the Free City of Strasburg to its Liberator. One wished the Emperor had been there to hear.

The new Victoria Bridge finished last year is three times as wide as London Bridge. The Belgian guards stand sentry on the left bank and the Swiss guards on the right; they represent the European guarantee of neutrality. The gate-house at each end is surmounted by a cross, with the words, "Peace I leave with you; My peace I give unto you." The parapets of the bridge are adorned with statues of saints, heroes, philosophers, and public benefactors generally; and in the middle were two platforms for the orchestra; while the electric globes at regular distances shed out their dust of silvery light. At the stroke of nine, a hundred bugles on the right bank sounded the call, and were answered by a hundred bugles from the left. Then the bugles on the left bank gave the call, and those on the right responded. The first bugle sounded like a religious solemnity; it was the call of Germany, the second was light and gay as a festal song—that was the call of France. Along the pavement of the bridge stood the innumerable foreign delegates, each group ranged under its own banner; we were there under the banner of our Alma Mater. You should have heard the hurrahs in all languages that kept bursting out along the whole length of the bridge, "Hoch!" and "Vive!" and "Viva!" and "Zurw!" and our own "Hurrah," at which I need not tell you we did our best. You would have thought that Strasburg spire was the tower of Babel—only we were not celebrating the division but the reconciliation of mankind.



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JESSE L. HURLBUT

LYMAN ABBOTT

EDWARD EVERETT HALE

HENRY W. WARREN

J. M. GIBSON

JAMES H. CARLISLE

WM. C. WILKINSON

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

THE CLASS OF 1907.

Miss Webster, the secretary, writes that orders for pins are coming in rapidly and with them many letters which indicate the steadily rising class spirit. Enthusiasm for Chautauqua does not interfere with loyalty to local Chautauquas, and it is pleasant to note that the 1907's are to be represented at many assemblies and so exert a definite influence in persuading others of the advantages of the four years' course. We quote from some of the letters received:

OHIO: "I have enjoyed the reading very much indeed this year. I fear it will be impossible for me to be at Chautauqua next summer as I have planned a trip to California to visit my parents. The last four summers I have spent at Chautauqua and have enjoyed it so much. I would like a good class pin."

OREGON: "I regret that I cannot pass with my fellow classmates through the Golden Gate at Chautauqua. I shall probably receive my diploma at the Gladstone Park Chautauqua at Oregon City. It is impossible for me to find words that will express my appreciation of the four years of Chautauqua home study. It has been a source of instruction, pleasure, and inspiration. Although I have not as yet met a member of the George Washington Class of 1907, I have been deeply interested in class affairs."

MASSACHUSETTS: "I am sending you seventy-five cents for a silver pin. I appreciate your words of welcome and wish that I might have the benefit of the assembly but I am a lone reader and know no one who is interested enough to go with me. However, there is time enough to find some one and I remember our motto 'Never be Discouraged.'"

FOR THE TENNYSON CLASS.

It is proposed that members of the Class of 1908 select some poem from the works of Tennyson which shall be adopted as their class poem. The class motto is taken from "Ulysses." Shall this or some other poem be elected? Representatives of the class who gather at Chautauqua this summer will consider the question and other members who meet at Assemblies or in their own circles are asked to send their views to the class Secretary, Miss S. E. Ford, 140 Main street, Binghamton, New York.



A SUGGESTION TO CIRCLES.

An interesting plan is suggested for Chautauqua Circles during the coming American year. Let the program committee assign to each member some one American author for special study during the year, leaving each one free to work out his own method, devoting attention to the man's life or to his influence upon others or to his writing just as his taste may suggest. Some of these members could report progress at each meeting or each one could be assigned an important place on the program at least once during the year. This arrangement will give to each member some piece of work quite different from that of anyone else, with time to come into close association with his author. The reports would be in the nature of an account of these author friendships and their varied influence upon the different members of the circle.



THE SECOND DUTCH CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY.

Some account of British Chautauqua movements is given elsewhere in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN and it will be remembered that last month reference was made to a proposed Chautauqua in Japan. That the international Circle of Chautauquas is widening is evident from the report of the second Dutch Chautauqua Assembly held at Kestell in the Orange River Colony in South Africa last November. This assembly which meets at the antipodes finds Novem-

ber much better suited to tent meetings than the chill atmosphere of July. Some of the subjects discussed in its four days' session were "Books—Why, what and How we must Read," "William I of Holland, Father of his Country," "William II, Stadtholder of Holland and King of England," "The Chinese," two lectures on the early settlers of the Orange Free State and other lectures upon Biblical topics. The Dutch Chautauqua Reading Circle which gives vitality to this assembly movement is making commendable progress. The committee in charge have had problems to face in the selection of books but the results of the Circle's work have been most encouraging. The leader of the movement, Rev. J. J. Ross, writes of the Assembly:

"The weather happened to be inclement. It rained a great deal yet in spite of it, we had a large gathering. The large tent we hired for the occasion was always full of attentive and interested listeners. Many declared during the last evening of the Assembly that the C. L. S. C. had become an eye-opener to them, showing them how little they knew, but had also been the means of stirring them up to read more. It was decided to start local circles throughout the country. We have already 162 members. This number will, however, soon be doubled, as great interest and enthusiasm have been created through this last Assembly. The people are now beginning to realize what the C. L. S. C. means for them. One hundred and eighty-two memoranda papers were sent out, eighty of which have been returned with the answers given, and this in spite of the fact that the books given out were really too difficult for ordinary readers. The books chosen for the following year are more suitable and not so difficult. You must remember the books are a great problem with us. The books for the following year are:

- "1. Uncle Tom's Cabin.
- "2. James Garfield.
- "3. William Gladstone.
- "4. Thomas Alva Edison.

"This is, therefore, our English-American year. The subjects to be handled at our next general Assembly will be English and American History, etc."



THE C. L. S. C. IN A PENITENTIARY.

In Edward Everett Hale's famous story of Ten Times One is Ten, it will be remembered that the hero, Harry Wadsworth, a young man with a more than ordinary amount of friendliness toward humanity in general, expressed his sympathy in countless helpful ways which often revolutionized the lives of people who came in contact with



C. L. S. C. Alumni Hall, Chautauqua, New York.



Southern Illinois Penitentiary, Menard, Illinois

him. One is reminded of this, in noting one of the events of this C. L. S. C. year, the awarding of a diploma for four years of reading to a prisoner in the Southern Illinois Penitentiary. There is no circle in this prison, but the chaplain with quiet enthusiasm has influenced one man after another under his care, to read the Chautauqua course. Two years ago nine men received diplomas. This year a tenth, a young man under thirty, who in sending his report, says:

"I have read each year such books as I could get that would help in the line of study for that year. I have completed Geometry and Trigonometry and Ancient History and am at present studying the German language. I also at intervals have read such books as will give me an insight into the manners and customs of our ancestors both here and in the mother country. I have read some Astronomy and Geology and a little Botany. The four years and nine months have not been wasted by any means."



NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

"Here is a good suggestion from Mt. Sterling, Kentucky," said Pendragon as in spite of the hot weather and a generally pervasive atmosphere of vacations, the delegates came note-book in hand and eager as ever for news. "The Mt. Sterling members with the sociability so pleasantly characteristic of our Southern membership are forming themselves into a 'poetry club' for the summer. So while many of you are studying under inspiring teachers at various summer assemblies, these stay-at-home Kentuckians will be quietly absorbing on their own account the wisdom of Tennyson or Matthew Arnold or Shelley or Wordsworth or some of the later bards. One can fancy the rose embowered porches and hammocks and easy chairs and lemonade, with the poets for company! It's a pleasant picture. There might be more of such to the advantage of us all. Of course, you will want to read some of the best of the current books also and at the August meeting of the Round Table we shall suggest a few of the recent books that are worth while. The Mt. Sterling Chautauquans write that they are also planning a 'Mystery Play' for their closing number and I hope we may have an account of such a notable undertaking at our next Round Table. They had quite a unique 'Oxford' program of which we shall hope to hear at that time."

"That Oxford question which you propounded to us some time ago," said the delegate from the Fleur-de-lis Circle of New York City, "as to what famous son of Oxford we should choose for our escort through the town, brought out a very lively discussion in our Circle. The only person who had more than one

vote was Matthew Arnold who had three. The reasons given for choosing him were his noble life, for living up to the truth to the best of his ability, for his clear insight and his high authority as a literary critic. An interesting incident was related of Gladstone, by one of our members, an English lady who cast her vote for him. It seemed that on one occasion he met a woman who with a small child in her care was trying to see Oxford. Constituting himself her guide, Mr. Gladstone showed her the many wonders of the ancient seat of learning. The story goes that he even carried the child when necessary for in his generous way he devoted several hours to this literary pilgrimage. Sir Philip Sidney had one vote because he had been a source of amusement to the member when she was a girl. Evidently others felt it a pleasure and honor to know the genial poet, for as one of our members recollected she saw in St. Mary's burying ground at Warwick an inscription written by one of the lords of Warwick for his own tomb 'a friend of Philip Sidney.' Dean Stanley, Ruskin and Tennyson each had a vote but as I have already said Matthew Arnold carried the day."



"This letter from Peru, Indiana," said Pendragon, "reports that the Wesleys were the first choice of that circle, though Gladstone won a number of votes—possibly this is due to the influence of the Class of 1910!"


"We agreed that to visit Oxford to the best advantage we couldn't do better than to be chaperoned by Dr. Arnold, Gladstone and John Wesley," remarked the member from Golden, Colorado. "I think you might call us 'an average lot.' We have one member who doesn't like Wordsworth, another who never could bear psychology and if you inspect the interior workings of our minds I fancy you would find still further diversities as to our affinities but that has made our study of the course all the more illuminating for whatever our opinions I think we have all tried to keep in view the importance of an open mind. 'Rational Living' we are assimilating little by little. Such a book as this is a great addition to a Chautauquan's library. It will be a 'live' book for many years to come."




"While talking with the Pacific Grove delegate just now," said Pendragon, "she told me that they had awakened from their 'Rip Van Winkle Sleep.' This is good news and we want to know just how they did it." "Perhaps I've stretched the facts a little," responded the California delegate, "as regards a twenty years' slumber; however long or short, it was sound enough while it lasted. About six years ago some of us began to feel that here at the very

The C. L. S. C. Round Table


home of the Pacific Coast Assembly where the C. L. S. C. was inaugurated in 1879, it rested upon us to keep the Chautauqua fire aglow at least. It did not take long to enlist a half dozen members. We invited visitors occasionally and closed our first year with a banquet. The circle has grown steadily till now we have two flourishing classes, one meeting in the afternoon, the other in the evening. We have graduated some members every year since our first four years closed and this year are to have special commencement exercises. Our two circles which now include forty-four members unite for all social functions and general meetings. Our library facilities have been meager so one year we got the State to make up a special library for us. Last year, however, we furnished our home library with a list of books and they ordered twenty-five dollars of reference books for us."



"Here's a comment in one of our reports from a Kansas Circle," remarked Pendragon, "which is worth thinking about. The writer in referring to the characteristics of the Circle sums up the situation thus: 'Too busy to get lessons—except two or three members. All are working on salary or have household duties which keep them busy.' I suppose this circle is not altogether exceptional in being made up of busy people and it makes some good suggestions which show close attention to the work. The point is, that a circle which finds that the majority of the members can't keep up with the program might find it possible to devise some way of bettering conditions. Possibly the household members could plan for an extra hour to meet and read aloud and so by a definite arrangement provide against interruption. The most efficient circle it seems to me is the one which nurtures rather than tests its members, and various experiments may be necessary before the very best plan is evolved."



"I must tell you," said the delegate from Wichita, Kansas, "how fortunate we were in having a presentation of Cymbeline in our town this winter. Our circle attended in a body and we feel that it was the event of the season. The actors were good and Imogen particularly well taken. You know we are one of fifteen circles in a town of thirty-eight thousand and we've been intensely interested in this year's work. We have a critic who is an important factor in the circle and the last meeting in the month is the social meeting when we have refreshments and a good time. The members entertain the circle in turn one month at a time."



"We were equally fortunate in our study of Macbeth." The speaker was from Benton Harbor, Michigan. "Just as we had

finished the play we had an opportunity to see it performed with Modjeska as Lady Macbeth. Nearly the whole class attended the play and you can imagine how we enjoyed discussing her interpretation of it. Our Shakespeare study has been so interesting that we are now reading Richard III in the circle under the guidance of a special leader. We are also making thorough study of the Reading Journey with maps."

"We haven't had a chance to see Macbeth played," commented a member from Tecumseh, Oklahoma "but we were so fascinated with it that we are now studying it for the second time. Shakespeare grows larger and larger the better you know him. I suppose that is true of all really great people. Their views of life are so much wider and deeper than those of the ordinary person and yet they are so genuinely human."




"Connecticut seems to be making a strong showing today," remarked Pendragon, as he nodded to a group on one side of the Round Table. "We are all new readers," replied the delegate from Moosup, "but we are enthusiastic members of the Gladstone Class and can't study the splendid lives of English Men of Fame as we have this year without feeling the force of our class motto, 'Life is a great and noble calling.' There are nearly a dozen of us. We hope to graduate a strong class four years from now." The next speaker from Derby commented upon their Oxford program. "We had a very entertaining paper," she said "on some 'Anecdotes of Famous Oxford graduates.' It gave us a feeling of friendly sympathy for some of the awe inspiring Oxford dons to find that they had human foibles much like some of our own! One of our members discussed the distinctive features of Oxford University and we had some charming reading entitled 'Our English Cousins' and 'A Midsummer Lark.' Altogether we seem to have got closer to the life of the English people than ever before." The delegate from New Canaan, a small town of three thousand inhabitants, reported good progress, the members having taken special pleasure in the travel and biographical features of the course.

"I never ride on a train," remarked an Ohio member, "without thinking as I pass the farmhouses how much they would get out of a house to house Chautauqua Circle and last January I had the pleasure of helping to form one at North Fairfield in this state. There are sixteen members, many of whom are the wives of young farmers, and of course they are very busy people; but they devised a plan of meeting monthly at different houses and in winter they have an all day meeting, appointing a reader for each meeting. It's a very interesting circle and I think you will hear from it in person some time at the Round Table."


The C. L. S. C. Round Table

"Will you permit the Orange, New Jersey, Circle to report at the year's end?" The speaker explained that they started in November with five members but hope next year to increase it. "The English course has been a perpetual source of delight from the beginning and especially did we enjoy the book on English Government; and Shakespeare's plays in turn. We read the plays aloud, assigning the characters to different members with occasional recitations from famous scenes. Indeed this English year has been rich in surprises and cherished by our circle as a memorable entrance into the arena of Chautauqua Knowledge." A member from Caldwell, Idaho, reported the Pierian Circle as doing excellent work with twenty-two members enrolled. "We are sending," she said, "for three or four copies of the 'Topical Outline' for the coming year. We think of changing the plan of our meetings and also having our programs printed for the year."



"An Oxford story telling was one feature of our last program," said the delegate from Lexington, Kentucky. "Different members took part and you know telling a story is such an art that the Oxford anecdotes entertaining in themselves were made doubly so by the skill with which they were presented. We've been very much stirred up in a sociological way by our studies of Ruskin. I really feel that we regard him as a sort of a patron saint. We had readings from his works with a discussion of his life and influence. As a preparation for our study of 'Rational Living' we are to have at our next meeting a lecture on psychology by a very gifted speaker, Professor Jefferson."

"I understand," said Pendragon, "that the Fort Dodge, Iowa, Chautauquans have been developing social tendencies. Their delegate will enlighten us." "I suppose you refer to our debate," laughed the representative of the Circle. It certainly had a pretty radical sound—"Resolved, that Socialism is the best Solution of the present Social and Economic Problem"—and the affirmative side won! We've been immensely interested in this aspect of the course and other features of that same program included a comparison of child labor in England and in America and a discussion of the Garden City Movement in England."



Pendragon laid on the table a dainty program printed in silver on a rich cream paper. "This," he said, "is the record of a notable event—the twenty-fifth anniversary of the organization of the first Chautauqua Circle in Carthage, Missouri. Fortunately we have one of the original members with us and can hear the story from her."

"The first two graduate Circles in Carthage," explained the delegate, "were the Ianthe and Vincent, both formed from the original undergraduate C. L. S. C. of Carthage. These two circles have for some years been united under the name of 'Ianthe-Vincent.' While I am the only one of the original members who has always been and is still a member of this Circle, there were a number of the original members present. The roll call of Classes was responded to by graduates every year down to '99. And had we had the room to entertain the graduates of later years every year of the twenty-five would have been full, for the local Circle still continues its work which has never been interrupted. Since we have a Chautauqua Assembly in Carthage the work has been strengthened. This anniversary was a most enjoyable event and created much enthusiasm. We keep in touch with all the work of the C. L. S. C. through our Carthage Chautauqua Union and our Chautauqua Assembly."

1882-1907

IANTHE-VINCENT C. L. S. C.

SILVER ANNIVERSARY

THURSDAY EVENING, MAY 2, '07.

At the Home of Mrs. J. F. Harrison.

Music, Instrumental Solo.....Miss Ethel Brown
WelcomeMrs. J. H. Dryden
ResponseMrs. J. W. Miller
Greeting, President Chautauqua Union.....Mrs. R. Taaffe
Roll Call of Classes.

Reminiscences.—

Local C. L. S. C.....Mrs. Geo. McCarty
Ianthe Chronicles.....Mrs. L. E. Whitney
Vincent.....Mrs. I. C. Hodson
Ianthe-Vincent.....Mrs. Geo. Brown
Music, Violin.....Miss Helen Harrison
Browning:—

The Poet of Faith.....Mrs. J. T. Berrian
The Poet of Hope.....Mrs. J. F. Harrison
The Poet of Love.....Mrs. John W. Burch
Rabbi Ben Ezra.....Miss Ethel Whitney
Music, Duet, Instrumental....Mrs. J. H. Dryden, Miss Ethel Brown



"Before we close," said Pendragon, "the Canandaigua Circle wants to contribute another chapter to the chronicle of the social activities of the Historical Man and Woman." The Canandaigua, New York, delegate upon being introduced read from a little booklet the following description of the guests at a reception given by the two quaint characters referred to.

The C. L. S. C. Round Table

There were thirty of these guests arranged in couples. "And, by the way," he remarked, "those who are new members of the Round Table can trace the previous history of the Historical Man and Woman and see their portraits by referring to the following numbers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"February, 1902, description of the Historical Man; June, 1902, given a name and taken on a reading journey by the Circle of Vineland, N. J.; December, 1902, description of the Historical Woman; September, 1903, Portrait of the Historical Woman by a Brooklyn member, and the wedding of the couple by the Circle at Sheffield, Pa.; December, 1903, Portrait of the Historical Man by the above circle and the wedding journey by the Sheffield Circle; February, 1904, key to the wedding and journey; December, 1904, wedding feast by the Circle at Aberdeen, Mississippi."

GUESTS IN COUPLES

1.—The "Widow" and the "Cat" in the following satire by Swift:

"A widow kept a favorite cat.
At first a gentle creature,
But when he was grown sleek and fat
With many a mouse and many a rat,
He soon disclosed his nature."

2.—The "original" of Browning's poem, "The Lost Leader";
The empress who was said by Diderot to be "the candlestick bearing the light of the age."

3.—He who first called "A spade a spade";
The queen who was also called "the King of France."

4.—The warrior-prophet whose life was saved by a spider weaving its web across a cave.

The queen who was called "The Deborah of the Huguenots."

5.—The English author of whom it was said he "wrote like an angel but talked like poor Poll."

The famous American author who signed herself "Christopher Crowfield."

6.—The surgeon-poet who died in Rome at the age of twenty-five.

The woman of whom Napoleon said "she has shafts which would hit a man if he were seated in a rainbow."

7.—The king to whom the famous Rosetta Stone was inscribed.
The lady who was called the "Jessamy Bride."

8.—He who was called the "Last of the Knights."

And the one (herself the wife of an author) who wrote under the name of "Deborah Dunn."

9.—The donor of a famous sword inscribed "From the oldest general in the world to the bravest."

The American woman who received a gold medal from the King of Denmark for the discovery of a comet.

10.—The king whose crown was found on a hawthorn bush near a famous battlefield.

The distinguished ruler of the third century who was the daughter of an Arab chief.

11.—The philosopher who was sold as a slave by the King of Sicily.

The young Irish woman who was given a sergeant's commission by George Washington.

12.—The king who endeavored to increase his stature by wearing high heeled shoes.

The lady who induced Cowper to write the ballad "John Gilpin."

13.—The Knight who was "without fear and without reproach." The Poetess known as "The Lesbian Nightingale."

14.—The thirteen-year-old hero of the "Battle of the Nile."

The modern author who is the niece of "the apostle of sweetness and light."

15.—He who was called "America's Scott."

The poetess called by Stedman "The Passion Flower of the century."



THE CHAUTAUQUA HOME READING COURSE FOR 1907-8

A rare opportunity for the study of American institutions is afforded by the Chautauqua Reading Course for 1907-8. The Home Reading Faculty which will direct the reading of thousands of people during the coming year is a notable one. Mr. John Graham Brooks, the well-known sociologist of Cambridge, Massachusetts, Miss Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, Mr. John R. Commons of the University of Wisconsin, Miss Katharine Lee Bates of Wellesley College, Miss Edwina Spencer of Buffalo, and Mr. Horace Spencer Fiske of the University of Chicago.

Two striking series of articles will be published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN magazine as Required Readings: Under the title "As Others See Us" Mr. John Graham Brooks will hold up the glass to our national traits as they have manifested themselves to our European neighbors during the past century. With genial humor, and many an apt anecdote he will picture to us the outgrown weaknesses of our national youthfulness, and with no less penetrating insight reveal the abiding traits which still make for our strength or weakness as a people.

Four years ago Miss Spencer traced for Chautauqua students in a richly illustrated series of articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN the development of American Sculpture. In like fashion her series on American Painting beginning with the September CHAUTAUQUAN will show the progress made by our artists of the brush from the days of the early portrait painters when American art was still colonial to the present time when there seems to be distinct evidence of tendencies toward a genuinely national art. Further detailed announcements of features of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for 1907-8 will be found on the last page. The titles and characters of the books are shown by reproductions of title pages, tables of contents, selections from the text and press comments on the following pages.

The Chautauqua Course has a distinct educational advantage for you. Hundreds of thousands of people have tested its value and their suggestions and criticisms have been constantly considered in the working out of the plan. Whether you belong to a club or do your reading alone, you can well afford to spare an average of twenty minutes a day for this course. Its systematic arrangement, and carefully correlated supplementary readings as sug-

gested each month in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* enable you to accomplish results which will surprise you if you have never before tried the plan. It gives not only the broad background which every intelligent person must have, but in relation to this shows the real significance of present day events.

CHAUTAUQUA HOME READING—THE C. L. S. C.

For Whom: For busy people who would like to be broad minded and intelligent, but who are bewildered by the mass of literature constantly thrust upon their attention, the C. L. S. C. offers a systematic plan.

For young men whose success in life depends upon their intelligence, whose time is very limited, yet who scatter their energies by reading entirely at random.

For fathers and mothers who want to keep up with their boys and girls as they enter school and college.

For young people employed in stores and factories, who have found that it pays them to spare twenty minutes a day for the C. L. S. C.

For high school graduates who want to keep on growing after they leave school.

For men and women on western ranches, in army posts and on the high seas, in danger of getting out of touch with the larger world.

For teachers in public and private schools, whose daily work requires specializing, but who feel the need of a broad outlook.



The general plan embraces

A four years' course, designed to give "the college outlook."

Each year's course distinct from the rest. The member does not bind himself by any pledge.

A monthly magazine with readings, notes, review questions, programs, and announcements.

Individual readers pursue the entire course alone without disadvantage.

Local circles of three or more members are easily formed and very helpful.

Expense less than 50 cents a month.

Time required, an average of twenty minutes a day.

A certificate at the end of each year's reading.

A diploma at the end of the four years.

Seals for written review work and for extra reading, both before and after graduation from the four years' course.

The four years' course includes an American Year, 1907-8, a year of Modern European subjects, 1908-9, a Classical year, 1909-10, and an English year 1910-11; but each year is complete in itself and all readers are therefore able to pursue the same course at a given time.

Class membership dates originally from 1878 when the class of '82 was organized. The American year beginning in October, 1907, is the first for the class of 1911, the second year for the class of 1910, the third for the class of 1909, the fourth for the class of 1908. The class entering the fall of 1907 is the class of 1911. Readers are received at any time during the year and can readily make up the work.

Each Year's Course comprises four books and two or more series of required articles in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* covering nine months, September to May inclusive. The course begins October 1, but the readings, programs, review questions, etc., are published one month in advance. This magazine, which is richly illustrated,

has a special value for Chautauqua students. It gives to them each month a carefully mapped out plan of reading arranged by weeks, so that each member can easily keep pace with others. Programs for circle work are provided and references to interesting supplementary matter to be found in other books and periodicals. THE CHAUTAUQUAN also publishes throughout the twelve months of the year important articles on many subjects—and also monthly reports from readers and circles, developing by this means a sense of brotherhood which has for many years given to the Chautauqua Circle a far-reaching influence.

The Required Readings for the Coming Year are as follows:

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: (September to May, inclusive)

As Others See Us. John Graham Brooks of Cambridge, Mass.

American Painting. Miss Edwina Spencer, Art Lecturer, Buffalo, N. Y.

The Four Books:

Races and Immigrants in America. John R. Commons of the University of Wisconsin.

American Literature. Katharine Lee Bates of Wellesley College.

Newer Ideals of Peace. Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago.

Provincial Types in American Fiction. Horace Spencer Fiske of the University of Chicago.

These four books and the two series of magazine studies while representing an interesting variety of topics have an underlying unity. The first book, Mr. Commons' "Races and Immigrants in America," is a remarkable survey of the various races and nationalities, which have contributed to the making of the American Nation. "American Literature," by Miss Bates, presents American life from the literary standpoint showing how our literature in its different periods has reflected our social ideals. While these two books are being studied there will appear month by month in THE CHAUTAUQUAN Mr. Brooks' series entitled "As Others See Us," a genial but penetrating survey of our national traits as foreigners have estimated them during the slow unfolding of our complex national life. Also Miss Spencer's series on American painting in which will be traced the progress of American Art as it has gradually won for itself a place which may be fairly called American. The third book of the course, "Newer Ideals of Peace," by Miss Addams, is acknowledged to be one of the great books of our time. It deals with the fundamental ethical truths which must be applied to the solution of our present day problems. The year's reading will close with Mr. Fiske's charming little volume reminding us of the picturesque American types which have been so skillfully portrayed by our greatest writers of American fiction.

No examinations are required of any member. Questions enabling the student to review his reading are provided but even these are not required. One may earn the annual certificate by merely reading the books and required magazine series of a given year. In like manner the diploma can be won at the end of the four years.

[Note: Presidents of local reading circles who want to plan their work in advance can secure on application to the Chautauqua Office a "Topical Outline" of the course for the American Year, which maps out the entire year's reading by weeks. This same outline will appear also month by month in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.]

The review questions are published in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* and are of two kinds:

1. Those following the required articles in each number of the magazine and also a set on each of the required books, published in the Round Table department. These are for general review purposes either by individuals or circles.

2. "Memoranda" or review questions provided with blank spaces for answers. These are bound into *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from month to month, and readers who wish to earn "seals" for their diplomas may do so by answering these questions. A duplicate detached copy will be furnished to every member upon application and when filled out and returned to the Chautauqua Office will be duly credited. This paper will be corrected and returned to the student on payment of a fee of twenty-five cents.

The Annual Certificate referred to above, is illustrated with some famous work of art and forms an attractive souvenir of the year's studies.

The diploma given at the end of the four years' course contains the simple statement that the graduate has read the four years' course of the C. L. S. C. But its unique design of a pyramid with steps, upon which seals for review work or for special courses may be placed, is a constant reminder to the student that graduation is only one stage of his progress in self-education.



Members may pursue the course entirely alone without disadvantage or they may combine in groups of three or more and form a "Local Circle." Hundreds of such circles have been formed in churches, in Y. M. C. A.'s, in neighborhoods or in women's clubs. Many of these have been in existence a score of years and have exerted a very marked influence upon the community, promoting good citizenship, helping to establish libraries, etc. A special circular entitled "How to Organize Local Clubs" can be secured on application to the Chautauqua Office.

Just as every college commencement is made the occasion for many class reunions, so the annual Recognition Day of the C. L. S. C. brings together at Chautauqua a large number of readers of various C. L. S. C. Classes. Members of the graduating class receive their diplomas at the hands of the Chancellor, while the C. L. S. C. Round Tables and council meetings, class reunions and receptions unite all members in a spirit of loyalty and good-fellowship. Nearly sixty Chautauquas in various parts of the country also hold Recognition Days and serve as local rallying points for readers unable to visit Chautauqua itself. But attendance at Chautauqua is not required and the larger number of graduates receive their diplomas by mail.

COST

The entire cost for one year, of the four books, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, enrollment, and membership is \$5. This is less than fifty cents a month and less than ten cents a week. It is much less than the separate parts of the course would cost, if taken each by itself; and in fact this special rate is offered only for subscription covering the whole course at once. Cash should accompany the order.



SPECIAL C. L. S. C. COURSES

The C. L. S. C. provides a large number of Special Courses on a variety of subjects. Among the Travel Courses are "A Reading Journey Through France," "A Reading Journey in Korea," "A

Reading Journey in China," "A Reading Journey Through Japan," and A "Reading Journey in English Counties." A course on Palestine is also in preparation. Among favorite historical and literary courses are three on Russia, three on English History, two on American History, one each on the English Novel, and on French and Modern European History. Chautauqua Bible Courses, under the supervision of able Biblical scholars, are also in constant demand. Full particulars of these and other Special Courses in Shakespeare, Nature Study, Biography, etc., can be secured by sending stamp for the Special Course Hand Book to Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, New York.

Graduates wishing to take the full C. L. S. C. course for any current year, can receive credit as follows:

An annual fee of one dollar entitles a graduate to the Membership, the Memoranda and certificate for the current year. Two seals can be earned:

1. For reading the books of the regular course and filling out the brief Memoranda, a special seal.
2. For filling out the more complete Memoranda, on the reading of the regular course, a white seal will be given, if 80 per cent. of the questions are correctly answered.



THE HABIT OF THINKING STEADILY UPON WORTHY THEMES DURING ONE'S SECULAR TOIL WILL LIGHTEN LABOR, BRIGHTEN LIFE AND DEVELOP POWER.

A BOOK LIST FOR NEXT YEAR'S COURSE.

Many individual readers will be glad to look over the following list of books which has already been sent to the local circles. There are some pleasant suggestions here for summer reading for those who want to anticipate the coming American Year's course:

(a) Relating to the Race and Immigrant Question.

Henry Cabot Lodge. *Historical and Political Essays*. \$1.25—Lester F. Ward. *Psychic Factors of Civilization*. \$2.00—W. K. Brooks. *The Law of Heredity*. \$2.00—Chas. A. Hanna. *The Scotch Irish*. vol. 1. 2 vols. \$10.00—Theodore Roosevelt. *The Winning of the West*. 4 vols. \$2.50 each—John Fiske. *Dutch and Quaker Colonies*. 2 vols. \$4.00—Booker T. Washington. *Up from Slavery*. \$1.50 net—W. E. B. DuBois. *The Souls of Black Folk*. \$1.20 net—Richard Mayo Smith. *Emigration and Immigration*. \$1.50—Bolton King. *Italy Today*. \$3.00 net—*The City Wilderness and Americans in Process*. Robert A. Woods, Editor. \$1.50 each—*Hull House Maps and Papers*, by Residents of Hull House. \$2.50—*The Tenement House Problem*. 2 vols. DeForest & Veiller, Editors. \$6.00—F. A. Bushee. *Ethnic Factors in the Population of Boston*. \$1.00—Helen Hunt Jackson. *A Century of Dishonor*. \$1.50—Francis A. Walker. *Discussions in Economics and Statistics*. 2 vols. \$6.00 net—C. H. Shinn. *Mining Camp, a Study in American Frontier Government*. \$2.00—Mrs. John and Marie Van Vorst. *The Woman who Toils*. \$1.50—Henry George. *Progress and Pov-*

erty. \$1.00, cloth, 50 cents, paper—Broughton Brandenburg. *Imported Americans*. \$1.00 net—John W. Burgess. *Reconstruction and the Constitution*. \$1.00 net—John R. Commons. *Proportional Representation*. \$1.75—James E. Cutler. *Lynch Law*. \$1.50 net.—W. E. B. DuBois. *The Philadelphia Negro*. \$2.50—John Fiske. *Old Virginia and Her Neighbors*. 2 vols. \$4.00—Prescott F. Hall. *Immigration and its Effects upon the United States*. \$1.50 net—Robert Hunter. *Poverty*. \$1.50—Frances A. Kellor. *Out of Work*. \$1.25—Lord, Trenor and Barrows. *Italian in America*. \$1.50—W. H. Mallock. *Aristocracy and Evolution*. \$3.00—George S. Merriam. *The Negro and the Nation*. \$1.75—James F. Muirhead. *The Land of Contrasts*. \$1.20 net—Hugo Münsterberg. *American Traits*. \$1.60 net. *The Americans*. \$2.50 net—W. L. Ripley. *The Races of Europe*. \$6.00—Leo S. Rowe. *The United States and Porto Rico*. \$1.30 net—F. J. Warne. *Slav Immigration and the Mine Workers*. \$1.00 net—Bryce's *American Commonwealth*, second volume—Paul Adam. *Vues d'Amerique*—P. G. Hamerton. *French and English*. \$1.50—Sir Philip Burne-Jones. *Dollars and Democracy*. \$1.25—Paul Bourget. *Outre Mer* II.

(b) Relating to American Literature.

Moses Coit Tyler. *History of American Literature During the Colonial Times*. \$3.00—Greenough White. *Sketch of the Philosophy of American Literature*. 35 cents—Louise Manly. *Southern Literature*. \$1.50—W. H. Venable. *Beginnings of Literary Culture in the Ohio Valley*. \$3.00—W. H. Rideing. *Boyhood of Famous Authors*. \$1.25—Alice Morse Earle. *Customs and Fashions in Old New England*. *Colonial Days in Old New York*. *Costume of Colonial Times*. \$1.25 each—J. Winthrop. *Some Old Puritan Love Letters*. \$2.00—A. V. G. Allen. *Life of Jonathan Edwards*. \$1.25—John Fiske. *American Revolution*. \$4.00. *Critical Periods of American History*. \$2.00—Volumes of the *American Statesman Series*. \$1.25 each—Moses Coit Tyler. *Literary History of the American Revolution*. 2 vols. \$3.00 each—J. B. McMaster. *Franklin as a Man of Letters*. \$1.25—William P. Trent. *Southern Statesmen of the old Régime*. \$2.00. The following \$1.25 each: John Esten Cooke, *My Lady Pocahontas*; Edwin Laseter Bynner, *Agnes Surriage and The Beggum's Daughter*; Alice Brown, *Mercy Warren*; H. H. Ravenel, *Elisa Pinckney*; Anne H. Wharton, *Martha Washington*; Mary Gay Humphrey, *Catherine Schuyler*; Maud Wilder Goodwin, *Dolly Madison*. Franklin. *Autobiography*. 40 cents. *Poor Richard*. 15 cents—*Poems of American Patriotism*. Brander Mathews, Editor. \$1.50—Francis Parkman. *The Oregon Trail*. \$1.00—E. C. Stedman. *Poets of America* \$2.25—*Poems of Bryant and Emerson*, Household Edition. \$1.50 each—*Poems by Longfellow, Lowell, Holmes, Whittier*. Cambridge Edition. 2.00 each. *Poems of Poe, Stedman & Woodberry* edition. \$1.50—Walt Whitman. *Selected Poems*. 75 cents—*Lives of Poets* as follows: Bryant, by G. W. Curtis 75 cents. Longfellow, by Samuel Longfellow, 3 vols., \$6.00. Lowell, by G. E. Woodberry, \$1.25. Whittier, by S. T. Pickard, 2 vols., \$3.00. Emerson, by O. W. Holmes, \$1.25—James T. Fields. *Yesterdays with Authors*. \$2.00—\$6.00—Mrs. James T. Fields. *Authors and Friends*. \$1.50—G. W. Curtis. *Literary and Social Essays*. \$2.50—Mary B. Claffin. *Personal Recollections of Whittier*. 50 cents. Same, *What is Worth While Series*, 35 cents—M. D. Conway. *Emerson at Home and Abroad*. \$1.50—Henry James. *Partial Portraits*.

\$1.50—Rose Hawthorne Lathrop. *Memories of Hawthorne*. \$2.00—E. D. Cheney. *Louisa M. Alcott, Her Life, Letters and Journals*. \$1.50—Henry C. Vedder. *American Writers of Today*. \$1.50—T. W. Higginson. *Cheerful Yesterdays*. \$1.50—T. H. Lounsberry. *Life of Cooper*. \$1.25—William P. Trent. *Life of Simms*. \$1.25—Charles Dudley Warner. *Life of Irving*. \$1.25—W. D. Howells. *My Literary Passions*. \$1.50—Horatio Bridge. *Hawthorne's Reminiscences*. \$1.25—Julian Hawthorne. *Life of Hawthorne*. 2 vols. \$12.00—George Parsons Lathrop. *A Study of Hawthorne*. \$1.25.

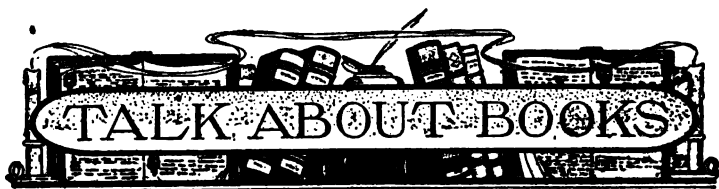
(c) Fiction illustrating American Provincial Types.

New England and the Middle States—A Modern Instance, The Lady of the Aroostook and The Rise of Silas Lapham by W. D. Howells; A Humble Romance, The New England Nun, Pembroke by Mary E. Wilkins; Country Byways, Tales of New England, A Country Doctor, A Marsh Island and Deephaven, by Sarah Orne Jewett; Caleb West, by F. Hopkinson Smith; The Stillwater Tragedy, by Thomas Bailey Aldrich; Cape Cod Folks, by Sally Pratt McLean; Diary of a Saint, by Arlo Bates; Seth's Brother's Wife, In The Valley, The Lawton Girl, The Damnation of Theron Ware by Harold Frederic; John Ward, Preacher, Old Chester Tales by Margaret Deland.

The South—The Burial of the Guns, Elesket, The Old Gentleman of the Black Stock, Red Rock and In Ole Virginia, by Thomas Nelson Page; Colonel Carter of Cartersville, by F. Hopkinson Smith; Free Joe, Mingo, At Teague Poteet's and Uncle Remus by Joel Chandler Harris; Old Creole Days, Bonaventure, The Grandissimes by George W. Cable; Tales of a Time and Place, Monsieur Motte, and Balcony Stories by Grace King; Babette, A Little Creole Girl, Sonny, Napoleon Jackson, by Ruth McEnery Stuart; A Cumberland Vendetta, by John Fox, Jr.; Flute and Violin, Kentucky Cardinal, The Reign of Law, by James L. Allen; In the Clouds, In the Tennessee Mountains, The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains, by Charles Egbert Craddock.

The Mississippi Valley—Life on the Mississippi, Huckleberry Finn, by Mark Twain; The Hoosier Schoolmaster, The Circuit Rider, by Edward Eggleston; Stories of a Western Town, by Octave Thanet. The Story of a Country Town, by E. W. Howe; The Real Issue, The Court of Boyville, by William Allen White; A Little Norsk, Prairie Folks, Main Travelled Roads, and The Captain of the Gray Horse Troop, by Hamlin Garland.

The Far West—The Led-Horse Claim, John Bodewin's Testimony, by Mary Hallock Foote; The King of the Broncos, and Bonifacio's Horse Thief, by Charles F. Lummis; The Virginian, Red Men and White, and Lin McLean, by Owen Wister; Ramona, by Helen Hunt Jackson; Before the Gringo Came, by Gertrude Atherton; The Luck of Roaring Camp, Frontier Stories, and Tales of the Argonauts, by Bret Harte.



AN INTRODUCTION TO THE BIBLE FOR TEACHERS OF CHILDREN. By Georgia Louise Chamberlain. The University of Chicago Press. Price \$1.00.

All intelligent workers in the Bible school agree that there is a demand for a curriculum that is arranged according to pedagogic principles and along the line of the modern historical study of the Bible. To meet this need the late President Harper and Prof. Burton of the University of Chicago and the Hyde Park Sunday-school undertook to edit a graded series of constructive Bible studies. The present volume is one of this series and is an elementary course in biblical instruction and intended for children of the fourth grade. Miss Chamberlain taught this course for several years before she published her book. The book has been used for a year in the Sunday-school of which the reviewer is a member and is a superior work. We recommend it to Bible school workers and teachers.

A HISTORY OF THE ANCIENT WORLD. George Stephen Goodspeed. pp. 483. 7 $\frac{1}{4}$ x5. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons. 1904. Careful examination of this most attractive volume makes one realize how our High School standards have been raised in recent years, and how our knowledge of the ancient world has been enriched by the discoveries upon classic sites within the past two decades. The services of the best scholarship have been brought to bear upon the preparation of this book. Professor Goodspeed's own knowledge of the field of ancient history was very profound, his style most illuminating, and the ordinary arrangement of the material admirably adapted to the use of teacher and pupil. The book surveys in turn the empires of Babylonia, Egypt, Syria, Assyria, Media, Kaldea, and Persia. The larger part of it is then devoted to "The Greek Empires" and "The Empire of Rome." The illustrations are of distinct value, including as they do reproductions of ancient reliefs, wall paintings, sculpture, architecture, and types of coins of different periods. An appendix gives very full notes of these illustrations. A number of full page and double page maps, admirably clear in design and coloring, supply all that could be desired in this respect, smaller maps and plans of battles, etc., also being provided. A half dozen chronological charts make it possible to compare the history of different countries at given periods, and carefully annotated bibliographies, topical outlines, review questions, etc., accompany each chapter. Such a book as this is a valuable addition to any library.

F. K.

CLASSIC MYTHS IN ART. Julia de Wolf Addison. pp. 285. 8x5½.
\$2.00 net. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1905.

The author of this volume disclaims any attempt to trace the portrayal of the old Myths by the great sculptors of Classic times. Her purpose is rather to show how in the period of the Renaissance and later, the classic influence manifested itself in the art of the painter. The portrayal of the nude was a marked feature of this stage of art, and the painter's fancy roamed unchecked in the new realms opened to his imagination. Under a dozen different headings, "The Loves of Zeus," "Apollo and the Muses," "Bacchus and His Train," etc., one gets some idea of the number of artists who have treated these subjects, and where their paintings may be found. Occasional comments from art critics are introduced to characterize the pictures. Some forty illustrations well executed are selected from works of art which are typical but not those most commonly reproduced. The binding and press work add to the attractive appearance of the volume.

SOUTHERN WRITERS. W. P. Trent. pp. 524. 7¾x5½. \$1.10 net.
New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

Professor Trent's book, "Southern Writers," will be of inestimable value to students of American literature, and of interest to the casual reader as well. The selections range from Captain John Smith to Joel Chandler Harris and represent many forgotten or inaccessible authors, "Davy" Crockett, John Pendleton Kennedy, Washington Allston, etc. The book is chiefly valuable for these extracts of minor authors who will never be widely read again but who deserve a few pages in a carefully edited anthology. Aside from the work of a few great men there is little here of genuine literary worth; but much is of value in the history of American literature. Professor Trent has made a scholarly book and one long needed.

C. H. G.

LORNA DOONE. Blackmore. pp. 642. 5¾x4¼. 25c. New York:
The Macmillan Co. 1905.

THE HOUSE OF SEVEN GABLES. Nathaniel Hawthorne. pp. 298.
5¾x4¼. 25 c. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

THE RAPE OF THE LOCK. Alexander Pope. pp. 202. 5¾x4¼. 25 c.
New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

SOHRAB AND RUSTUM. Matthew Arnold. pp. 219. 5¾x4¼. 25 c.
New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

THE DESERTED VILLAGE. Goldsmith. pp. 390. 5¾x4¼. 25 c.
New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

HENRY THE FIFTH. Shakespeare. pp. 219. 5¾x4¼ 25 c. New
York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

THE ESSAYS OF ELIA. Charles Lamb. pp. 403. 5¾x4¼. 25 c.
New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

LONGFELLOW'S THE COURTSHIP OF MILES STANDISH. Will David
Howe. pp. 248. 5¾x4¼. 25 c. New York: The Macmillan
Co. 1905.

BACON'S ESSAYS. George Herbert Clarke. pp. 318. 5¼x4¼. 25 c. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

MEMORABLE PASSAGES FROM THE BIBLE. Fred Newton Scott. pp. 171. 5¼x4¼. 25 c. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

CRANFORD. Mrs. Gaskell. pp. 217. 5¼x4¼. 25 c. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

SELECT ESSAYS AND ADDRESSES. Ralph Waldo Emerson. pp. 275. 5¼x4¼. 25 c. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905.

PILGRIM'S PROGRESS (Bunyan's). James Hugh Moffatt. Pp. 471. 5¼x4½. 25 c. The Macmillan Co. New York. 1905.

JOAN OF ARC. Thomas De Quincey. pp. 297. 5¼x4½. 25 c. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1906.

The careful editing which characterized the first volumes of this invaluable series persists in the most recent examples. These little books are well appearing, of convenient size, and are composed of tastefully selected material. The notes are copious, intended for elementary students, but valuable even to the cultured reader. No booklover, priding himself on complete editions, need ignore well edited selections from great authors. To all but the greatest minds reading must be carefully selective; this series provides the necessary selection.
C. H. G.

ARTS AND CITIZENSHIP. Kate Upson Clark. 68 pages. 5x7¼. 75 cents net. New York: Eaton & Mains.

The author first delivered this essay before the Woman's Press Club of Ohio. She takes issue with the dictum that "the genius of the artist should know no restraints," maintaining that the artist's original, fundamental conception of life should be moral.

SOME CITIES AND SAN FRANCISCO. Hulbert Howe Bancroft. 64 pages. 5¼x7¼. New York: The Bancroft Co. 1907.

First some startling comparisons with other cities the world around which have suffered over and over from fire, earthquake, pestilence, etc. The story of how San Francisco came to be, and its importance as the portal of the Pacific. A second paper gives some definite figures regarding the San Francisco disaster and forecasts future city achievements in inspiring style.

CHRIST'S SECRET OF HAPPINESS. Lyman Abbott. Printed in two colors from special type designs. 84 pages. 12mo. Cloth, gilt top, 75 cents net; white and gold, \$1.00 net; limp leather, \$1.50 net. Postage 8 cents additional. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

It is sufficient merely to list the titles of these suggestive essays which have a welcome message to sincere people: Three Kinds of Happiness; Four Unfortunates; The Blessedness of the Poor; The Joys of Sorrow; Getting is not always Gaining; The Spring of Perpetual Youth. A Twice Blessed Grace; The Vision of God; The Honors of Peace; The Blessedness of Battle; Why Are You not Happy?

SOHAB AND RUSTUM, With Other Poems. Matthew Arnold. Ed-

ited by W. P. Trent and W. T. Brewster. Pp. 107 and Introduction. Ginn & Co.

CRANFORD. Elizabeth Stevenson Gaskell. Edited by William Edward Simonds. Pp. 209 and Introduction. Ginn & Co.

A TALE OF TWO CITIES. Charles Dickens. Edited by William Edward Linn. Pp. 455 and Introduction. Ginn & Co.

All three of the above named volumes are lately issued in the Standard English Classics Series and in the attractive new binding that has recently been adopted for that series, a semi-flexible dark olive cloth, very clearly stamped in a dull gold. Altogether the effect is harmonious and pleasing. The books are well printed on good paper, and are in every way satisfactory to handle. The prices of the series range only from 25 cents to 60 cents, which makes their mechanical excellence worthy of note. The editorial work has been done chiefly for the use of classes, and is admirable for such use; but it will be found to supply also just about what the average reader of these books requires. The series is equally well suited for class-room or library.

THE PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH VERSE. By Charlton M. Lewis, Professor of English Literature in Yale University. pp. 143. New York: Henry Holt and Company.

This is not a manual of technique for the versifier; it is rather, as its name implies, a summary and discussion of the principles that are to be observed in the study of English poetry, in order that technical qualities may be somewhat appreciated. The first chapter treats of the element of natural rhythm, and the somewhat more artificial character of metrical movements in speech or writing. The other five chapters are given respectively to The Pentameter Line, Blank Verse, Rimed Pentameters, Miscellaneous Meters, Embellishments of Verse.

This small book will certainly prove of value to the "general reader" to whom it is especially dedicated in the preface. It may well be helpful in some particulars to the occasional or even the professional writer of verse, especially for observations concerning the fitness of certain metrical forms to certain sentiments of which they are alike cause and effect. The style of presentation is simple and pleasing throughout, and is concrete enough to be easily apprehended.

THE BALANCE OF POWER. Arthur Goodrich. Illustrated by Otto Toasperm. Pp. 413. \$1.50. New York: The Outing Publishing Company.

This is a thoroughly American story with something of timely interest because of its dealing with questions of capital and labor, of stock manipulation, and of strikes, as they affect a moderate-sized New England town. We have learned, however, that these, under varying forms, are about as old as organized society; and the empha-

sis of the book is on things of human nature which are abiding. So there is no reproach in saying that it is distinctly American and timely.

A decidedly virile and likable hero, a womanly American girl for a heroine, a villain or two, and about the right number and variety of fathers, mothers and other such attributes, may perhaps be assumed. But there are more of them than conventions would require (literary conventions, of course) and the unusual thing is that they have so marked individuality, each and all of them. For example Mrs. Gilbert, the Scotch mother of the hero, and a very "prideful woman," is a distinctly pleasant and satisfying figure to remember, though several others hold more prominence.

The problems of the book, social and personal, are well worked out—perhaps with undue thoroughness to make everything come right in the end, a cynic would think. If any little dog had ever snarled at the hero one fancies that he must have been brought around to wag his tail in the last scene. Yet this is probably only the fault-finding of a cynic; and most of us will not quarrel with the book on such an account.

The writing is clear, and graceful or strong as occasion requires, the parts well balanced, the climax intensely dramatic; and the whole deserves the imprint of a good house and the excellent treatment that the printers have given it. E. H. B.

AMERICAN CHARACTER. By Brander Matthews. Professor of Dramatic Literature in Columbia University. pp. 34. Net, 75c. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

The author of this little book could scarcely have taken a subject more congenial or proper to him than the one announced. He has already written considerably upon the subject of American literature and has contributed not a little to the criticism of the short story and to popular appreciation of what place Americans hold in the development of the short story. He has always spoken of literature as an expression of civilization and of life, and accordingly the present address, for such it is, falls naturally into a list of his writings. It is a thoroughly sane and impartial analysis of certain charges made by foreigners against the American character, namely charges of excessive practicality and lack of idealism. He effectually refutes any notion that the best idealism is such as "stares at the moon and stumbles in the mud." The idealism of Emerson and of Lincoln is like that of Shakespeare and of Moliere, of Sophocles and of Goethe, and is not less noble because practical. Yet Mr. Matthews reminds us that "nothing will work out all right unless we so make it work" and sounds a call to patriotism and manly independence. Keeping free from influences that tend to corrupt, he believes we need not fret ourselves as to the peculiar expression

that our idealism may naturally find for itself, whether it be like or unlike the expressions of other peoples and other times.

In style the address is graceful and pleasing throughout and illustrates, as most writing of the author does, that in practice if not in some of his real or imputed theories he has due regard for technical correctness. It has been delivered twice before university students and well deserves to be made permanent, for it is a valuable addition to the literature of the subject.

EWA, A TALE OF KOREA. By W. Arthur Noble. Pp. 354. \$1.25.
New York: Eaton and Mains.

An instructive study of Korean life, in somewhat literary guise, is what the reader will find rather than a piece of literary art in which knowledge of Korea is an ingredient material. Genuine knowledge there plainly is, and something of the imaginative quality which gives vividness and reality to things depicted. Sympathy and earnestness too make themselves felt throughout, and the pathos and tragedy of the book lay hold upon the reader till he identifies himself with the utterer of the final exclamation, "Korea shall be free!"

THE HOLY GRAIL. By James A. B. Scherer, LL. D., Pp. 210. J. B. Lippincott Co.: Philadelphia. 1906.

The literary and ethical nature of President Scherer's volume of essays is well indicated by the list of titles: "The Holy Grail," "Henry Timrod," "Sidney Lanier," "The Crusaders," "Liberty and Law," "The Century In Literature."

The essays upon the Southern poets, Timrod and Lanier, are sympathetic sketches if not final and exhaustive criticisms, but the best thought of the book will be found in "Liberty and Law." In this President Scherer attacks the great problem of our lawlessness as a people and finds the remedy in the ethical training which should be but is not, a part of our common school education.

C. H. G.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH (English Men of Action Series). By Sir Rennell Rodd. Pp. 292. Macmillan & Co.: London. \$75.

All CHAUTAUQUAN readers who have been fascinated by Professor Lavell's "Imperial England" will be interested in this sympathetic biography of one of the first and greatest empire builders. Proud and arrogant, versatile, brave, crafty, yet at his best highminded and dignified, Raleigh has always been an enigma and the subject of debate. His latest biographer deals gently but fairly with him. In a corrupt time Raleigh was not free from fault, but the splendor of his genius and the purity of his actions are alike evident when his character is contrasted with that of the weak sovereign who condemned him to death as a political expedient.

C. H. G.

THE SPIRIT OF DEMOCRACY. By Charles Fletcher Dole. Pp. 435. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.: New York. \$1.25.

In this volume "The Spirit of Democracy," Mr. Dole examines various modern problems of social and political interest in the light of the broader democratic spirit which is infusing our human relationships with a new and more hopeful meaning. At home and abroad the new spirit is striving to bring about nobler conditions. Mr. Dole claims no "panacea for the ills and grievances that disturb the world," but he declares "There is, however, a certain spirit of humanity or good will which all the clearest thinkers are coming to agree is the essential factor in civilization." Mr. Dole's exposition is thoughtful and sympathetic. C. H. G.

CHRISTIANITY AND SOCIALISM. By Washington Gladden. Pp. 244. Eaton and Mains: New York.

In five interesting essays previously delivered as addresses, Washington Gladden discusses in his sane, lucid, and temperate manner the greatest social questions of our time. The essays are: "The Sermon on the Mount as the Basis of Social Reconstruction;" "Labor Wars;" "The Programme of Socialism;" "The True Socialism;" "Lights and Shadows of Municipal Reform."

The capitalist who desires the welfare of his employees, and the union worker who desires to promote righteous methods in labor organizations will alike find these essays profitable reading. Radicals of either side will think them unsatisfactory, for violence and revolutionary changes are deplored. Instead, Mr. Gladden makes his appeal to the spirit of Christian brotherhood, which, once it becomes universal, will transform any form of society, however iniquitous under present day conditions. Mr. Gladden is not a thoroughgoing socialist but he sympathizes with the ethical purpose which makes socialism almost a religion. One quotation sums up the spirit of these temperate and thoughtful discussions:

"He is not the best Socialist who is one outwardly, who puts his trust in statutes; neither is that the true Socialism which is outward in the flesh, which deals wholly with the machinery of production and distribution; but he is a true Socialist who is one inwardly, and the genuine Socialism is that of the heart, in the spirit, not in the letter.

"And what is the spirit of the true Socialism? It is manifest, as I think, *in the habit of regarding our work, whatever it may be, as a social function.* The true Socialist is one who never forgets that he is a member of society, and who always considers well the effect of what he is doing, not merely upon his own private fortunes, but also upon the common weal." C. H. G.

Classified Program

SERMONS.

Sunday Morning	June 30	Bishop Charles D. Williams
Sunday Morning	July 7	Bishop W. F. McDowell
Sunday Morning	July 14	Rev. T. B. Kilpatrick
Sunday Morning	July 21	Rev. C. F. Aked
Sunday Morning	July 28	Rev. W. C. Bitting
Sunday Morning	Aug. 4	Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman
Sunday Morning	Aug. 11	Bishop J. H. Vincent
Sunday Morning	Aug. 18	Rev. Hugh Black
Sunday Morning	Aug. 25	To be announced

LECTURES.

Religious.

Devotional Hours	June 27-28	Rev. O. P. Gifford
Devotional Hours	July 1-5	Bishop Charles D. Williams
Devotional Hours	June 22-26	Rev. C. F. Aked
Devotional Hours	July 8-12	Dr. Wm. Byron Forbush
Devotional Hours	July 15-19	Rev. T. B. Kilpatrick
Devotional Hours	July '9-Aug. 2	Rev. W. C. Bitting
Devotional Hours	Aug. 5-9	Rev. J. Wilbur Chapman
Devotional Hours	Aug. 13-16	President E. H. Hughes
Devotional Hours	Aug. 19-23	Rev. Hugh Black
"Christianity's Challenge"	June 29	Rev. O. P. Gifford
<i>Non-Christian Religions</i>	July 15-19	Pres. G. Stanley Hall
(1) Fetichism; (2) Mohammedanism; (3) Brahmanism; (4) Buddhism; (5) Confucianism.		
Social Significance of Christianity	Aug. 5-9	Prof. Shailer Mathews
Bible Studies, 9 o'clock each Sunday morning. Sunday School at 3 p. m. Convocation for adults in the Amphitheater. Intermediate in Higgins Hall. Primary in Normal Hall. Kindergarten in Kellogg Hall.		

Sociological and Historical

"A Horseback Ride through Palestine"	June 27	Rev. O. P. Gifford
Democratic Culture	June 29	Prof. Charles Zueblin
Icaria and the Icarians	July 1	Pres. George E. Vincent
<i>The American Republic</i>	July 1-5	Mr. Arthur E. Bestor
(1) Our Constitution; (2) The President; (3) Congress; (4) Political Parties in America; (5) American Political Problems.		
The Old World and Its Ways	July 6	Hon. Wm. J. Bryan

THE JUVENILE PROBLEM.

The Boy Behind the Problem	July 8	Rev. Wm. Byron Forbush
Public Playgrounds and the Problem	July 9	Mr. E. B. DeGroot
The Public Library and the Problem	July 9	Mr. Melvil Dewey
The Juvenile Problem in the South	July 10	Rev. Crawford Jackson
The George Junior Republic	July 11	Mr. W. R. George
Manufacturing a Man	July 11	Judge Willis Brown
A Juvenile Court Session.	July 12	Judge Willis Brown

Classified Program

Conferences on the Juvenile Problem July 8-10
 Conference on the Juvenile Problem July 12
 Closing address of the series July 13
 The Victims of Our Civilization July 20
Studies in American Social Life July 22-26

Judge Ben B. Lindsey
 Judge Ben B. Lindsey
 Dr. W. H. Hickman
 Pres. Geo. E. Vincent

(1) N. E. & Virginia Types; (2) The Aristocracy of the Atlantic; (3) The Democracy of the Frontier; (4) National Traits and the Press. (5) Social Classes in America.

THE PROBLEM OF SOCIAL UNREST.

Socialism's Challenge to Society July 29-Aug 3 Mr. John Graham Brooks

(1) Origins of Socialism; (2) Recent Growth and Activity; (4) Socialism as a Religion; (5) Money and Marriage; (6) Our Duty Toward the Movement.

Relation of Politics to Social Unrest July 29

Capital and the Social Unrest July 29

Journalism and the Social Unrest July 30

The Associated Press and Social Unrest July 30

Ostentatious Wealth and Class Feeling July 30

Socialism and the Social Unrest July 31

Lecture July 31

Public Utilities and the Social Unrest Aug. 1

The Public School and Social Unrest Aug. 2

Relation of the Church to Labor Aug. 2

The Church and the Social Unrest Aug. 2

Closing Address of the Series Aug. 3

How to Live with People Aug. 5

'America as a World Power Aug. 12

Cameo Portraits of the Presidents Aug. 15

The Immigration Problem Aug. 15

Lincoln and Washington Aug. 16

National Army Day Aug. 17

Russian Civilization Aug. 19-24

(1) Russia Old and New; (2) Peter the Great. (3) Catherine the Second; (4) Russia in the Nineteenth Century; (5) Russian Literature; (6) The Future Russia.

Mr. Jas. Wadsworth, Jr.

Mr. Henry Clews

Mr. Erman J. Ridgway

Mr. Melville E. Stone

Col. S. H. Church

Mr. J. Phelps Stokes

Mrs. J. G. Phelps Stokes

Mr. F. W. Stevens

Hon. E. E. Brown

Bishop Henry C. Potter

Rev. Charles Stelzle

Miss Jane Addams

Miss Martha A. Bortle

Bishop H. W. Warren

Dr. J. M. Buckley

Rabbi Moses Gries

Rabbi Moses Gries

Mrs. LaSalle Corbell Pickett

Mr. Arthur D. Rees

Literary.

SHAKESPEARE WEEK.

Shakespeare Lectures July 15-19

Prof. Stockton Axson

(1) Shakespeare's Romantic Comedy; (2) Shakespeare's Historical plays; (3) Human Responsibility in Shakespeare's Tragedies; (4) Fate in Shakespeare's Tragedies.

Lecture Recital July 15

Lecture Recital July 17

Lecture Recital July 19

Charles Dickens Aug. 5-9

(1) The Man and His Time; (2) Early Work; (3) Maturity; (4) The Artist; (5) The Reformer and Moral Force.

Anglo-American Polite New Learning Aug. 8

On Being a Doctrinaire Aug. 9

Prof. S. H. Clark

Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker

Mrs. Emily M. Bishop

Dr. Richard Burton

Rev. Samuel Crothers

Rev. Samuel Crothers

Classified Program

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American Life in American Letters Aug. 19-23

Mr. Percy H. Boynton

- (1) American Literature to 1800; (2) Two Great Pioneers; (3) Spiritual Leaders; (4) Popular Spokesmen; (5) Poe and Whitman.

Pedagogical and Scientific.

Life's Day

1. Noon time July 13
2. Nearing the Sunset July 27
Higher Daily Living July 13
Our Human Hungers July 22-26

Dr. W. S. Bainbridge
Dr. W. S. Bainbridge
Mrs. Clara Z. Moore
Dr. Earl Barnes

- 1) The Basal Forces of Life; (2) The Non-Social Forces; (3) The Social Impulses; (4) The Appetite for Knowledge; (5) The Love for the Beautiful.

- American Education Aug. 1
A Few Minutes for Health Aug. 3
Carnegie Institution Aug. 5
Carnegie Pension Fund Aug. 6
Schools—Public or Private Aug. 12
Genius and Woman's Intuition Aug. 13
Forces in a Sunbeam Aug. 13
Recognition Day Address Aug. 14
Literature and Daily Living July 27

Hon. Elmer E. Brown
Mrs. Clara Z. Moore
Pres. R. S. Woodward
Pres. H. L. Pritchett
Dr. J. M. Buckley
Dr. J. M. Buckley
Bishop H. W. Warren
Pres. E. H. Hughes
Mrs. Emily M. Bishop

MUSIC.

General.

Open Air Band Concerts, usually Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday evenings at 7, July 11 to Aug. 22.

Special Concerts

- American Composers' Night July 5
Shakespeare Programs July 15 and 17
Shakespeare Song Recital July 19
Opera Score, Aida (Verdi) July 24
Children's Operetta, Old King Cole Aug. 9
College Night Aug. 12

Miss Helen Waldo

Organ Recitals

- Special Recital July 2-4
Special Recital July 16-18
Special Recital Aug. 6-7

Men's Glee Club

Mr. I. V. Flagler
Mr. Chas. E. Clemens
Dr. G. W. Andrews
Mr H. B. Vincent

Special Days through season

Artists' Recitals

Piano and Violin recitals by Messrs. W. H. Sherwood and Sol Marcossion Monday afternoons in Higgins Hall. Vocal recitals by Messrs Ellison Van Hoose and Frank Croxton on Thursday afternoons in Higgins Hall. A fee is charged.

Religious Music.

- Sacred Song Service 7:45 P. M. each Sunday.
Stabat Mater, Rossini July 14
Creation, Parts I and II, Haydn July 21
Messiah, Handel July 22

Classified Program

Lazarus, Edwards	July 26
Cantata, Neidlinger	July 28
Moses in Egypt, Rossini	Aug. 2
Victory Divine, Marks	Aug. 11
Elijah, Mendelssohn	Aug. 15
The Creation, Part III, Haydn	Aug. 18

Special Events of Various Kinds.

Formal Opening of Assembly	June 27
Organ Concert and Patriotic Meeting	July 4
Summer Schools Reception	July 6
Annual Prize Spelling Match	July 10
Federation Day Exercises with address by Mrs. Sarah S. Platt Decker	July 17
Shakespeare Prize Quotation Match	July 20
Patriotic Day with Special Address	July 24
Swede's Day Exercises	Aug. 3
United Mission Study Conferences	Aug. 5-10
Old First Night Exercises	Aug. 6
Dedication of New Memorial Organ	Aug. 6
Gibson picture tableaux	Aug. 8-10
Feast of Lanterns	Aug. 13
Recognition Day Exercises and Address	Aug. 14
Annual Question Box	Aug. 16
Annual Gymnasium Exhibition	Aug. 16
National Army Day Exercises	Aug. 17

ILLUSTRATED LECTURES.

San Francisco a City of Promise	July 28	Prof. Charles Zueblin
World's Fairs, Chicago to Portland	June 29	Prof. Charles Zueblin
Three picture plays	July 1-4	Rev. A. T. Kempton
(1) Evangeline; (2) Miles Standish; (3) Hiawatha.		
Gardens of Italy	July 9	Mrs. Wilton P. Wainwright
English Enclosed Gardens	July 11	Mrs. Wilton P. Wainwright
The Sepoy Mutiny	July 13	Dr. J. M. Thoburn, Jr.
Russia and Revolution	July 30	Mr. Kellogg Durland
Foreign New York	Aug. 1	Mr. Kellogg Durland
Lyman H. Howe's Moving Pictures	Aug. 14, 17	

READINGS AND RECITALS,

Southern Songs and Stories	July 1-5	Miss Lucine Finch
Reading Hour	July 8-12	Mrs. Emily M. Bishop
Midsummer Night's Dream (With Mendelssohn Music)	July 16	Prof. S. H. Clark
A Winter's Tale	July 18	Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker
King Rene's Daughter	July 25	Miss Grace Chamberlain
Candida	July 27	Miss Grace Chamberlain
The Idylls of the King	July 29-Aug. 1	Prof. S. H. Clark
Peer Gynt	July 31	Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker
Twelfth Night	Aug. 3	Mr. Leland Powers
Bleak House	Aug. 5	Mr. Leland Powers
Gringoire and other selections	Aug. 7	Mr. Leland Powers
Reading Hour	Aug. 12-16	Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker
Reading Hour	Aug. 19-23	Miss Alice Chapman

Chautauqua Institution Summer Schools

DEPARTMENT OF INSTRUCTION.

JOHN H. VINCENT, Chancellor. GEORGE E. VINCENT, President.
SCOTT BROWN, General Director. PERCY H. BOYNTON, Secretary.

EDUCATIONAL COUNCIL.

MISS JANE ADDAMS, Hull House, Chicago.
MELVIL DEWEY, Former N. Y. State Librarian.
PRES. B. P. RAYMOND, Wesleyan University.
PRES. G. STANLEY HALL, Clark University.

SUMMARY OF COURSES.

The following is merely a list of courses offered in the thirteen schools of Chautauqua Institution during the summer of 1907. A complete catalog, giving a description of each course, will be mailed on application to Chautauqua Institution, Chautauqua, New York. This catalog will give full information as to tuition fees and expenses, etc.

I. ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Prof. Stockton Axson, Prof. S. H. Clark, Dr. Richard Burton, Mr. Percy H. Boynton, Mr. Sherlock B. Gass.

1. Idealism in Nineteenth Century Literature. 2. The Tragic Element in Shakespeare. 3. English Fiction from Richardson to Hardy. 4. The English Essay from Lamb to Stevenson. 5. American Literature. 6. An Introduction to English Literature. 7. Principles and Practice of Composition. 8. Composition and Rhetoric.

II. MODERN LANGUAGES.

FRENCH.

M. Benedict Papot, Dr. G. E. Papot.

1. Beginning French Elementary Grammar. 2. Beginning French, Natural Method. 3. Tutoring Classes in Elementary Grammar. 4. Tutoring Class in Natural Method. 5. Intermediate French, Natural Method. 6. Intermediate French Grammar. 7. Advanced French Reading. 8. Advanced French Composition. 9. Beginning French. 10. The French Club.

SPANISH AND ITALIAN.

Senor R. H. Bonilla.

11. Beginning Spanish. 12. Beginning Italian.

GERMAN.

Dr. Otto Manthey Zorn, Mr. W. S. Blakeslee.

1. Elementary German Grammar. 14. Elementary German Reading and Conversation. 15 and 16. Tutoring Classes in Elementary Grammar and in Reading and Conversation. 17. Intermediate German Composition and Syntax. 18. Intermediate German Reading and Conversation. 19. Advanced German. German Classics. 20. Goethe. 21. Modern German Drama. 22. History of German Literature. 23. Children's Classes in German. 24. Lectures in German. German Teachers' Conferences. German Table, German Entertainment, and German Club.

III. CLASSICAL LANGUAGES.

Prof. Geo. D. Kellogg, Prof. O. S. Tonks.

1. Beginning Latin. 2. Studies in Caesar. 3. Studies in Virgil. 4. Beginning Greek. 5. Latin Sight Reading. 6. Latin

Chautauqua Summer Schools

Composition. 7. Anabasis. 8. Homer's Iliad. Teachers' Conferences.

IV. MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE.

Dr. Louis C. Karpinski.

1. Elementary Algebra. 2. Plane Geometry. 3. Plain Trigonometry. 4. College Algebra. 5. History of the Development of Arithmetic.

PHYSICS.

Dr. L. L. Campbell.

6. Physics I. 7. Physics II. 8. Physical Laboratory Work I. 9. Physical Laboratory Work II.

CHEMISTRY.

Mr. J. F. Taylor.

10. General Chemistry. 11. Chemistry Laboratory Practice. 12. Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis.

BIOLOGY.

Miss Alice G. McCloskey, Mr. Vaughan McCaughey, Mr. Charles Tuck, Dr. Carlos E. Cummings.

13. Nature Study. 14. Nature Study Laboratory and Field Work. 15. Bird Study. 16. School Gardening Lectures. 17. School Gardening Laboratory Work. 18. Biology Lectures. 19. Biology Laboratory. 20. Human Physiology. 21. Tropical Products.

V. PSYCHOLOGY AND PEDAGOGY.

SUMMER SCHOOLS CONVOCATIONS.

1. Prof. George E. Vincent, President of Chautauqua Institution, July 8-12. 2. Pres. G. Stanley Hall, Clark University, Worcester, Mass., July 15-19. 3. Dr. Earl Barnes, Author and Lecturer, Montclair, N. J., July 22-26. Dr. W. H. Hickman, President Board of Trustees, Chautauqua Institution, July 29-31. 4. Hon. Elmer E. Brown, United States Commissioner of Education, Aug. 1, 2. 5. Prof. Richard Burton, University of Minnesota, Aug. 5-9.

PSYCHOLOGY LECTURES.

Prof. Charles Gray Shaw.

6. Psychology and Culture. 7. Psychology and Education.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

Miss Harris, Miss Emily Bradshaw, Mrs. Lillian McL. Waldo.

8. General Methods. 9. Primary Methods. 10. Grammar School Methods. 11. Hand Work.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

Miss Frances E. Newton, Miss Mary L. Morse, Miss Mary Fox, Miss C. C. Cronise.

12. Professional Kindergarten Course. 13. Kindergarten Preparatory Course.

SPECIAL METHOD.

Miss Louise Connally, Miss Rice.

14. The School Library. 15. Blackboard Sketching. 16. Blackboard Sketching.

COURSE IN ECONOMICS.

Mr. L. D. H. Weld.

17. Railroads. 18. Trusts.

CLASSES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

Miss Frances E. Newton, Miss Anna Stockton, Miss Ethel Burdette, Dr. James A. Babbitt, Miss Sarah Freeman.

19. Kindergarten. 20. The Nursery Kindergarten. 21. Boys' Club. 22. Girls' Club. 23. German.

VI. RELIGIOUS TEACHING.

Rev. T. B. Kilpatrick, Rev. Alfred E. Lavell, Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut.

1. Christian Salvation. 2. The Sunday School Teacher. 3. The History of Israel. 4. The Sunday School Teachers' Bible Class. 5. The Sunday School Teachers' Normal Class. 6. Bible Stories to Children. 7. Addresses on Palestine.

VII. LIBRARY TRAINING.

The Chautauqua Library School is designed for librarians of smaller libraries and library assistants who cannot leave their work for the extended courses offered in regular library schools, but who can get leave of absence for six weeks of study to gain a broader conception of their work and a general understanding of modern methods and ideals.

Technical instruction given by Mary E. Downey, Ottumwa, Ia., Public Library; Sabra W. Vought, University of Tennessee Library; and Faith E. Smith, Sedalia, Mo., Public Library, will be supplemented by ten or more lectures from Melvil Dewey, President American Library Institute; Miss Mary Eileen Ahern, Editor of *Public Libraries*; Miss Frances Jenkins Olcott, Chief of Children's Department, Carnegie Library, Pittsburg; George E. Vincent, Professor, University of Chicago; Mrs. H. L. Elmendorf, Bufalo Public Library; Miss Mary E. Hazeltine, Wisconsin Library School; Miss Katherine L. Sharp, Librarian and Director, University of Illinois; and other successful American library workers who give freely to the summer students most helpful suggestions from their own experience, adding inspiration and a broader outlook. Miss Louise Connally of Camden, N. J., will give a course of ten lectures on the administration of a school library. The regular Chautauqua program daily supplements the library course with helpful, inspiring lectures.

Course of Study.—The course is systematically planned to accomplish the most possible in six weeks, each requiring 40 hours of study. Regular lectures and lessons will include: Cataloging, classification (decimal system), accessioning, author numbers, shelf-listing, book selection and buying, reference work, bibliography, library building and equipment, library organization and administration, statistics and accounts, book-making, binding and repair, note taking, library handwriting, mechanical preparation of books for the shelves, serials, loan systems, library extension, work with children, schools, study clubs, etc.

VIII. DOMESTIC SCIENCE.

Miss Anna Barrows, Miss Elizabeth S. Darrow, Miss Frances Kittridge.

1. Food and Dietetics. 2. Sanitation. 3. Cookery. 4. Household Management. 5. Applied Chemistry. 6. School Room Methods in Cooking. 7. Sewing. 8. Shirt Waists.

IX. MUSIC.

Mr. Ellison Van Hoose, Mr. Frank Croxton, Mr. James Bird, Mr. William H. Sherwood, Mr. Alfred Hallam, Mr. Sol Marcossion.

1. Musical Lectures. 2. Harmony. 3. Sight Reading Classes.

CHORUSES AND RECITALS.

(a) The Chautauqua Choir; (b) The Junior Choir; (c) The Male Glee Club. Under the direction of Mr. Alfred Hallam, Musical Director of the Institution.

ARTISTS' RECITALS.

Messrs. W. H. Sherwood and Sol Marcossion; Messrs. Ellison Van Hoose and Frank Croxton.

PIANO.

Mr. Wm. Sherwood, Miss Georgia Kober, Mrs. E. T. Tobey. Interpretation Classes, Piano Normal Classes, Children's Piano Classes.

VOICE.

Mr. Ellison Van Hoose, Mr. Frank Croxton.

Breathing as a basis for all correct singing as taught by the old masters; Enunciation and interpretation of Oratorio, Opera, Classic and Modern Songs and Arias. Lectures on the Art of Singing.

VIOLIN, ORGAN, AND OTHER INSTRUMENTS.

Mr. Sol Marcossion, Mr. Henry B. Vincent.

Violin, Organ, Harp and Mandolin, Violincello, Cornet, Saxhorn, and Flute instruction arranged for on application.

PUBLIC SCHOOL MUSIC.

Mr. B. F. Croxton, Mr. Alfred Hallam, Mr. James Bird.

1. Class in Methods and a Practical Course of Study through Kindergarten and Primary Grades.

2. Methods and a Practical Course of Study from Primary Grades through Grammar Grades to High School.

3. High School and Chorus Work—the art of conducting—School Concert Programs, etc.

Elementary Theory and Harmony for the school room, including simple methods of writing intelligently exercises and studies on the blackboard.

HOW TO LISTEN TO MUSIC.

Mr. Carroll Brent Chilton. Illustrated lecture course.

X. ARTS AND CRAFTS.

ART HISTORY.

Mr. W. B. Stevens, Prof. Oliver S. Tonks.

1. Italian Art from the Mosaicists to Michelangelo. 2. Leonardo, Michelangelo, Raphael and Correggio. 3. The Art of Venice. 4. The History of Ancient Art.

CERAMICS.

Mrs. L. Vance-Phillips, Mrs. M. E. Perley, Miss Fannie M. Scammell, Miss Frances X. Marquard.

Decorative Painting, Miniatures and Figures.

MECHANICAL DRAWING.

Mr. Charles E. Illsley.

1. Synthetic Geometry. 2. Orthographic Projection. 3. Isometric and Cavalier Projections, and Pseudo Perspective. 4. Special Course in House Planning.

GENERAL COURSES.

Mr. Frank G. Sanford, Mr. Frank P. Lane, Miss Jean V. Ingham, Miss Amelia B. Sprague, Miss Lillian Fliege, Miss Clarinda C. Richards, Miss Buelah E. Stevenson.

1. Design. 2. Constructive Wood Work. 3. Cane Seating and Rush Seating. 4. Art Metal. 5. Wood Carving. 6. Primary Hand Work. 7. Basketry. 8. Textile Design. 9. Leather Working. 10. Book Binding. 11. Portrait and Cast Drawing. 12. Outdoor Sketching. 13. Still Life and Flower Painting.

XI. EXPRESSION.

Prof. S. H. Clark, Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker.

1. (a) Voice Culture and Vocal Expression. (b) Gesture According to Psychologic Laws. (c) Literary and Dramatic Interpretation. (d) Artistic Rendering. 2. Public School Teacher's Course in Reading and Methods of Teaching It. 3. Reading Aloud. 4. Vocal Culture. 5. Non-Professional Course. 6. Interpretative Course in Poetry of Robert Browning. 7. Modern Drama as the Interpretation of Life. 8. Group Courses.

XII. PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

Dr. J. W. Seaver, Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, Mrs. Clara Z. Moore.

1. The Normal Course. 2. General Gymnastics. 3. Medical Gymnastics. 4. Americanized Delsarte Culture. 5. Outdoor Sports and Games. Aquatics.

XIII. PRACTICAL ARTS.

BUSINESS TRAINING.

Mr. William H. Covert, Mr. Charles R. Wells, Mr. W. D. Bridge, Miss F. M. Bridge, Mrs. John F. Lewis.

- Teachers' Normal Course. Commercial Course. Penmanship. Shorthand. Typewriting. Parliamentary Law.

Assembly Calendar for 1907

ARKANSAS.

<i>Name of Assembly.</i>	<i>Dates.</i>	<i>Recognition Day.</i>
Fort Smith, Officers: Superintendent E. T. Edmonds; Secretary, L. Fishback.	June 20-29.	
Springdale. John P. Stafford, Manager.	July 21-28.	

CALIFORNIA.

Long Beach.	July 15-27.	
Special days: College, Temperance, Peace.		
Chief attractions: Senator Burkett, Prof. N. C. Schacfer, Gov. Bucktel, Rev. David Beaton, Prof. S. L. Krebs, Prof. William F. Bade.		
C. P. Dorland, President.	Secretary J. A. Miller.	
Pacific Grove.	July 19-29	July 15.
Rev. Thomas Filbin, Wasco, Keen Co., Cal., Manager.		

COLORADO.

Boulder.	July 4-Aug. 14	Aug. 9.
F. A. Boggess, Supt.		
Palmer Lake.	July 15-Aug. 26.	
Frank McDonough, Jr., McPhee Building, Denver, Manager.		

CONNECTICUT.

Forestville.	July 11-24.	July 18.
Summer Schools: C. L. S. C.; Bible, Nature Study, Elocution, Music, Domestic Science; Daily Round Tables.		
Rev. B. F. Gilman, Ansonia, Conn, Secretary; C. L. S. C. Representative, Rev. D. W. Howell, 411 Windsor Ave., Hartford, Conn.		

ILLINOIS.

Aurora.	Aug. 6-18.	
O. L. Wilson, 323 Mercantile Block, Aurora, Manager.		
Bloomington.	Aug. 9-18.	
Summer Schools: C. L. S. C. Round Tables, Bible Classes, Young People's Conferences.		
Special days: Dedication, Anti-Saloon League, Home-coming.		
Chief attractions: W. J. Bryan, Senator LaFollette, Governor Hanly, Billy Sunday, Captain Crawford, Bishop Galloway.		
James L. Loar, Manager.		
Canton.	Aug. 15-28.	
Summer Schools: Kindergarten, Sunday School Institute, Bible.		
Special days: Governors', W. A. Sunday, Indiana, Bryan.		
Chief attractions: Governors Folk and Hanly, Hon. W. J. Bryan, Jack Crawford, W. A. Sunday.		
T. C. Fleming, Supt.		
Charleston.	July 19-28.	
Summer Schools: Economics, Reading, Domestic Science.		
Chief attractions: Bryan, Seeds, Wickersham, Holson, Beauchamp.		

Assemblies for 1907

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Chautauqua (Jersey Co.). July 11-Aug. 21. July 18.
Special days: Sunday School, W. C. T. U., Athletic, Bible Week, Domestic Science Week.

Summer Schools: Kindergarten, Needlework, Fencing, Bible, Cooking.

Chief attractions: W. J. Bryan, LaFollette, "Ben" Taylor.

Recognition Day Speaker: Dr. H. L. Herbert.

W. O. Paisley, Lincoln, Ill., General Manager.

Clinton.

Aug. 17-27.

Officers: E. L. Hoffman, Superintendent; Perry Hughes, Secretary.

Dixon.

July 27-Aug. 11.

Aug. 9.

Adam A. Krape, Lena, Ill., Manager; Mrs. Charles E. Risser, C. L. S. C. Representative.

Freeport.

July 4-14.

H. M. Holbrook, Oak Park, Ill., Manager.

Galesburg.

Aug. 2-11.

Officers: Fuller Swift, Superintendent; J. M. Cauley, Secretary.

Geneseo.

Aug. 9-18.

Officers: James Speed, Bloomington, Ill., Superintendent; George B. Dedrick, Secretary.

Havana.

July 25-Aug. 4.

July 27.

Special days: Dedication, Old Soldiers and Old Settlers, Anti-Saloon League, Bryan, W. C. T. U., LaFollette, Watersports, Hanly, Billy Sunday.

Chief attractions: Governor Hanly, Senator LaFollette, William J. Bryan, Billy Sunday, Dr. E. L. Eaton, Dr. Steven J. Herben.

Officers: J. C. Ewing, Peoria, President; Rev. T. L. Hancock, Havana, Secretary; James L. Loar, Bloomington, Superintendent; C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. C.M. Morrill.

Hoopeston.

July 26-Aug. 4.

James H. Shaw, Bloomington, Manager.

Lincoln.

Aug. 14-27.

Aug. 23.

Special days: Chautauqua, Indiana.

Summer Schools: Round Tables, Bible Study, Kindergarten, Nature Study.

Chief attractions: Governor Hanly, Captain Hobson, Frederick Warde, W. J. Bryan, Hon. W. T. Mills, Hon. J. B. Barnhill. C. L. S. C. Round Table Leader, Dr. D. W. Howell.

D. H. Harts, Jr., Manager.

Lithia Springs.

Aug. 10-26.

Aug. 14.

Recognition Day Speaker, Rev. D. W. Howell; C. L. S. C. Round Table Leader, Miss Georgia Hopkins, Shelbyville.

Officers: Jasper L. Douthit, Shelbyville, Manager; Miss Winifred Douthit, Shelbyville, C. L. S. C. Representative.

Litchfield.

July 21-Aug. 5.

Special days: Farmers' Day, Governors' Day.

Summer Schools: Domestic Science, Manual Training.

Chief attractions: W. J. Bryan, Dr. Gunsaulus, Col. Bain, Gov. Deneen.

Assemblies for 1907

Charles R. Adair, Superintendent.

Nokomis. Aug. 15-25.
E. G. Bauman, Mt. Vernon, Ind., Manager.

Ottawa. Aug. 16-25.
George M. Trimbele, Manager.

Patterson Springs, near Camargo. Aug. 14-25.
Officers; Thornton Long, President; W. D. Higdon, St. Louis, Mo., Superintendent.

Petersburg. Aug. 7-22. Aug. 14.
Officers: Rev. J. M. Johnston, Superintendent; Rev. C. E. Smoot, Secretary.

Pontiac. July 20-Aug. 4. July 27.
Summer Schools: Round Tables, Normal Bible, W. C. T. U. Institute, Nature Study, Kindergarten, Domestic Science, Metal Work, Basket Weaving, Story-telling.

Chief attractions: W. J. Bryan, Gov. Cummins, Senators LaFollette and Dubois, Dr. W. J. Dawson.

Recognition Day Speaker and Round Table Leader, Dr. D. W. Howell.

A. C. Folsom, Pontiac, Manager.

Rockford. Aug. 17-Sept. 1. Aug. 29.
Recognition Day Speaker and C. L. S. C. Representative and Leader, Dr. D. W. Howell.

A. C. Folsom, Pontiac, Manager.

Streator. June 28-July 7.
Special days: July 4, Children's.

Summer Schools: Health and Round Tables.

Chief attractions: Governor Hanly, Senators LaFollette and Tillman, W. J. Bryan, Mrs. Maybrick, N. Riddell.

J. E. Williams, Chairman.

Urbana. Aug. 15-25.
S. W. Love, Manager.

INDIANA.

Remington. Aug. 10-25.
Summer Schools: Round Tables, Boys' and Girls', Domestic Science, Nature Study.

Special days: Grand Army, Farmers', W. J. Bryan.

Chief attractions: W. J. Bryan, Edward A. Ott, Rev. Charles R. Scoville, Rev. G. W. Anderson, Rev. G. R. Stuart, Prof. M. L. Bowman.

Robert Parker, Manager.

Winona Lake. July 1-Aug. 31.
Summer Schools: Normal, Nature Study, History and Civics, Physiography, English Literature, Agriculture, Mathematics, Domestic Science, Expression, Music, Arts and Crafts, Classical and Modern Languages, Librarians, Manual Training, Astronomy, Photography, Bible.

Assemblies for 1907

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Chief attractions: Dr. N. D. Hillis, W. H. Sherwood, Chicago Orchestra, Dr. F. W. Gunsaulus, W. J. Bryan, Dr. John P. Graves, Dr. J. W. Chapman, etc.

Rev. S. C. Dickey, Secretary and General Manager.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

Ardmore. June 24-July 1.
E. P. Downing, Manager.

IOWA.

Allerton. Aug. 14-21.
E. J. Sias, Lincoln, Neb., Manager.
Atlantic. Aug. 17-25.
J. S. Harlan, Superintendent.
Clarinda. Aug. 7-16. Aug. 15.
Summer Schools: C. L. S. C. Round Tables, Literature, Bible, Young Peoples'.
Special days: Old Soldiers, Shakespeare, Farmers'.
Chief attractions: Leon H. Vincent, W. J. Bryan, Governor Hanly, Frederick Warde, Anna Shaw, Innes' Band.
William Orr, Manager.
Des Moines. June 28-July 7. July 3.
Recognition Day Speaker, Dr. Frank Gunsaulus.
Iowa City. July 31-Aug. 9.
Officers: W. I. Atkinson, Superintendent; James W. Dvorsky, Secretary.

Mediapolis. Aug. 21-29.
H. T. Fish, Manager.
Shenandoah. June 27-July 4.
Summer Schools: C. L. S. C. Round Tables, Bible Lectures, Domestic Science.
Chief attractions: Dr. George R. Stuart, Prof. M. L. Bowman, Lou J. Beauchamp, Jacob A. Riis, Gen. James A. Weaver, Robert Parker Miles.
Mrs. Charles E. Risser, C. L. S. C. Representative.
Earl Sheets, Secretary.

Toledo. June 26-July 4.
Officers: M. R. Drury, President; G. F. Yothers, Secretary.

Washington. Aug. 14-23.
Summer Schools: History, Cooking, Young Peoples'.
Chief attractions: Senators Tillman and Dubois.
Officers: A. R. Miller, Secretary; S. W. Livingston, Superintendent.

Waterloo. July 3-23.
W. J. French, Manager.

KANSAS.

Beloit. July 19-28.
Rev. T. J. H. Taggart, Manager.

Cawker City. Aug. 10-25. Aug. 20.
Summer Schools: C. L. S. C. Round Table, Bible, Sunday School, Kindergarten, Domestic Science, Physical Culture, Art, Literature, Missionary, Music.

Assemblies for 1907

Chief attractions: Governor Cummins, Senator LaFollette, Father Daly, Guy C. Lee, Dr. Gunsaulus, The Dunbars.

Recognition Day Speaker, Bishop John H. Vincent.

Officers: E. L. Huckell, Secretary; Meddie O. Hamilton, Wichita, Kans., C. L. S. C. Representative.

Coffeyville. July 16-26. July 24.

Recognition Day Speaker, Bishop John H. Vincent.

Officers: Ellis Purlee, Manager; Meddie O. Hamilton, Wichita, Kans., C. L. S. C. Representative.

Ottawa. June 18-28. June 27.

Recognition Day Speaker, Dr. George E. Vincent.

Officers: Henry Durst, Secretary; Meddie O. Hamilton, Wichita, Kans., C. L. S. C. Representative.

Salina. July 12-21.

Summer Schools: C. L. S. C., Missionary, Domestic Science, W. C. T. U.

Chief attractions: Governor Cummins, Captain Hobson, Champ Clark, Dr. Frank Gunsaulus, Senator Charles Curtis, Spillman Riggs.

Officers: Frank Hageman, President; A. H. King, Secretary; George R. Crissman, Manager.

Sterling. July 6-14.

P. P. Trueheart, President; C.G. Miller, Secretary.

Wathena. Aug. 10-18. Aug. 14.

A. W. Themanson, Secretary.

Winfield. June 18-28. June 24.

Recognition Day Speaker, Dr. George E. Vincent.

C. L. S. C. Representative and Round Table Leader, Miss Lillian Walton, Winfield, Kans.

Summer Schools: Bible Study, Literature, C. L. S. C. Round Table, Missionary, W. C. T. U., Art, Music, Sunday School Normal, Young Peoples'.

Chief attractions: Governor Folk, Dr. W. Byron Forbush, Dr. Herbert L. Willett, Senator LaFollette, Dr. George E. Vincent, Senator Chester I. Long.

A. H. Limerick, Secretary.

KENTUCKY.

Ashland. June 27-July 8. July 2.

Summer Schools: C. L. S. C. Round Tables, Bible, Elocution and Dramatic Art.

Special days: W. C. T. U., Medal Contest, Seton Indians' Day, Illuminated Fleet.

Chief attractions: Senator Tillman, Dr. Cadmon, Frank Dickson, Laurant, Ralph Bingham, Wesleyan Male Quartet.

Recognition Day Speaker, Dr. O. S. Gray.

Officers: J. C. Crabbe, Manager; Miss Marie L. Roberts, C. L. S. C. Representative.

Henderson. July 12-21.

Officers: James Speed, 1205 North McLane Street, Bloomington, Ill., Superintendent; C. O. Rutsch, Secretary.

Assemblies for 1907

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Owensboro.

Aug. 1-14.

W. F. Maylott, Manager.

MAINE

Old Orchard.

Aug. 1-13.

Recognition Day Speaker, F. S. Baldwin.

Summer Schools: C. L. S. C., Elocution, Biblical Institute, Art, Languages, Physical Culture, Young Peoples' Missionary Conference, Educational Bureau, Children's Bible Study.

Special days: Improvement, Children's Educational Bureau, Missionary, Civic Progress, Women's Suffrage, Temperance, Boys' Work.

Chief attractions: Prof. Baldwin, Leland Powers, Frances C. Morris, John Eills, Robert W. Taylor, Prof. H. H. Britan.

Officers: L. G. Jordan, Lewiston, Secretary; Prof. H. R. Purinton, Superintendent.

MARYLAND.

Mountain Lake Park.

Aug. 2-28.

Aug. 15.

W. L. Davidson, C. L. S. C. Round Table Leader.

Dr. W. L. Davidson, 1711 Lamont Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., Manager.

Washington Grove.

July 22-Sept. 1.

Aug. 16.

Summer Schools: C. L. S. C. Round Tables, Kindergarten, Art, Self-Expression.

Chief attractions: Jack Crawford, Hawkes, Kling, Vitagraph, etc. W. H. H. Smith, 386 Navy Department, Washington, D. C., Manager.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Northampton.

July 9-19.

July 17.

Officers: W. L. Davidson, 1711 Lamont Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., Manager; Rev. H. G. Allen, Gloucester, Mass., C. L. S. C. Representative.

C. L. S. C. Round Table Leader, Prof. A. H. Evans.

MICHIGAN.

Ludington.

July 28-Aug. 24.

Summer Schools: Bible, Voice, Piano, Art.

Chief attractions: Bishop Vincent, Bishop Galloway, Bishop Berry, Dr. Quayle, The Ben Greet Company, and "The Messiah."

Elvin Swarthout, 633 Michigan Trust Building, Grand Rapids, Mich., Manager.

MISSOURI.

Carthage.

July 2-11.

July 8.

C. L. S. C. Leader, Miss Lillian A. Walton, Winfield, Kans.

G. C. Howenstein, President.

"Wyandot," Kansas City.

July 1-31.

July 25.

Summer Schools: C. L. S. C. Round Tables, Oratory, Music, Art, Sociology, Kindergarten, Normal, Academic, University Extension, Sports.

C. L. S. C. Round Table Leader, Miss Elma J. Webster.

Recognition Day Speaker, Rev. William A. Brown.

Henry G. Pert, President, Kansas City, Kans.

Assemblies for 1907

Pertle Springs. July 17-Aug. 4.
Officers: Rev. J. L. McKee, 2510 Perry Avenue, Kansas City, Mo., President; C. H. Boyles, Warrensburg, Mo., Secretary.

NEBRASKA.

Beatrice. July 18-30.
E. A. McGlasson, Secretary.
David City. Aug. 2-12.
Officers: E. G. Hall, President; L. W. Bluller, Secretary.
Hastings. July 19-28.
Hiram B. Harrison, Manager.
Lincoln. July 30-Aug. 8.
Summer Schools: Art, Normal, Religious Service.
Chief attractions: Vice-President Fairbanks, Bishop Galloway, Frederick Warde, George R. Stuart, Bishop L. B. Wilson.
L. O. Jones, Manager.

NEW YORK.

CHAUTAUQUA. June 27-Aug. 25. Aug. 14.
Recognition Day address: "Knowledge and Power," President E. W. Hughes, DePauw University.
See detailed program.

Findley Lake. Aug. 3-26. Aug. 22.
Officers: Dr. W. T. S. Culp, Cleveland, Ohio, Superintendent; L. T. Swertz, Secretary.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Hendersonville. Aug. 15-Sept. 1.
Officers: Sam. T. Hodges, Superintendent; Michael Schenck, Secretary.

NORTH DAKOTA.

Devil's Lake. June 29-July 16. July 12.
Special days: Recognition Day, Scandinavian, Athletic Field, Farmers'.
Chief attractions: Hon. A. J. Cummins, U. S. Senator P. J. McCumber, Senator H. C. Hansbrough, Guy Carlton Lee, Dr. J. S. Montgomery, Carter the magician.
C. L. S. C. Representative, E. E. Saunders, Oberon.
Edgar L. LaRue, Manager.

OHIO.

Bethesda. July 31-Aug. 15. Aug. 9.
Officers: Rev. P. U. Hawkins, Secretary of C. L. S. C.; J. Melvin Richards, Secretary.

Cambridge. Aug. 1-12. Aug. 10.
Recognition Day Speaker, Hon. John M. Amos.
C. L. S. C. Round Table Leader, Miss Mary Stone.
Mrs. Fred L. Rosemond, C. L. S. C. Representative.
Rev. Ken C. Hayes, Superintendent; W. C. Collins, Secretary.

Celina. July 21-Aug 6.
J. C. Hambarger, Superintendent.

Delaware.
Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, Ohio, Manager.

- Findlay. Aug. 8-19.
Milton W. Brown, Westwood, Cincinnati, Ohio, Superintendent; J. C. Moyer, Secretary.
- Franklin. July 26-Aug. 12.
F. C. Cromer, 1314 North Main Street, Dayton, Ohio, Manager.
- Lakeside. July 6-Aug. 26.
Summer Schools: Bible Study, Music, Epworth League Institute.
Chief attractions: Dr. E. M. Rangell, Dr. E. O. Buxton, Edgar D. Dubois, C. H. Osenhan, Dr. T. H. Campbell, Rev. Robert A. George.
Otto H. Magly, Secretary and Superintendent.
- Lancaster. Aug. 1-18.
Rev. J. W. Mongly, Secretary.
- Mt. Vernon. July 23-Aug. 4.
Chas. J. Rose, Granville, Ohio, Manager.
- Peebles. Aug. 6-16. Aug. 15.
Rev. H. E. Kelsey, Unity, Ohio, Superintendent; E. H. Baldrige, Secretary.

OKLAHOMA.

- Guthrie. Aug. 14-22.
W. H. Rose, Granville, Ohio, Manager; R. N. Dunham, Secretary.
- Kingfisher. June 22.
Recognition Day Speaker, John DeWitt Miller.
Rev. J. H. Parker, Manager; F. L. Boynton, Secretary.

PENNSYLVANIA.

- Mount Gretna. July 3-Aug. 3.
Officers: M. C. Shenk, Lebanon, Pa., President; Rev. V. W. Dip-
pell, Lebanon, Secretary.
- Pocono Pines. July 2-Sept. 1.
Summer Schools: Art, Bible, Botany, Craft Work, Education,
Elocution, English, French, Geology, German, Greek, Kindergarten,
Latin, Mathematics, Music, Oratory, Ornithology, Physical Culture.
Officers: L. G. Fouse, President; Joseph L. Garvin, Secretary.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

- Big Stone City. July 2-15. July 12.
Special days: W. C. T. U., Old Soldiers', South Dakota.
Summer Schools: Reading, Oratory, and C. L. S. C. Round
Tables.
Chief attractions: Hon. F. T. Dubois, Judge Ben Lindsey, Guy,
Carlton Lee, D. W. Robertson Co., Carter and Wife, Olof Valley
Co.
Recognition Day Speaker, Rev. A. A. Tanner.
C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. E. E. Martin, Ortonville, Minn.
R. J. Hicks, Manager.
- Columbia. June 27-July 4.
George B. Daly, Manager.
- Madison. June 29-July 15.
H. P. Smith, Manager.

TENNESSEE.

Bristol. Sept. 1-14. Sept. 10.
Dr. W. L. Davidson, 1711 Lamont Street, N. W., Washington, D.
C., Manager.

Monteagle. July 1-Aug. 31.
F. A. Butler, Manager.

TEXAS.

Dallas. June 23-30.
G. D. Gray, Manager.

Waxahachie. July 16-26.
Rev. C. C. McConnell, Ferris, Texas, Manager.

VIRGINIA.

Bristol. Sept. 1-14.
W. L. Davidson, 1711 Lamont Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.,
Manager.

Harrisonburg. Aug. 20-30.
A. P. Funkhouser, Manager.

Purcellville. Aug. 6-14.
C. C. Gaver, Hillsboro, Manager.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Wheeling. July 3-10. July 6.

Special days: National, Y. M. C. A., C. L. S. C.

Summer Schools: C. L. S. C. Round Tables, Bible, Physical Cul-
ture, Languages.

Chief attractions: Edmund Vance Cook, Miss Ben Oliel, Prof
J. C. Lowe, Ross Crane, Spence-Strong, Linna Henig Sherman.

C. B. Graham, Manager.

WISCONSIN.

Delavan. Aug. 3-18.
Summer Schools: Bible Study, Cooking and Domestic Science,
Art and House Decoration, Health, etc., Round Tables.

Chief attractions: Senator Tillman, George R. Stuart, Bishop Gal-
loway, J. E. Woodland, Wm. E. Geil.

I. B. Davies, Secretary; W. A. Cochrane, Manager.

Madison. July 25-Aug. 6. Aug. 5.
Summer Schools: Music, Physical Culture, American History,
Bible Study.

Chief attractions: Wm. J. Bryan, Geo. R. Stuart, Rev. Thos. E.
Green, John DeWitt Miller, Edward P. Elliott.

Rev. D. W. Howell, Recognition Day Speaker and C. L. S. C.
Round Table Leader.

C. L. S. C. Representative, Mrs. W. F. Hanchett.

James E. Moseley, Secretary.

Marinette. July 17-Aug. 1.
Rev. A. J. Benjamin, 32 Herald Building, Milwaukee, Wis., Man-
ager.

The



CHAUTAUQUAN



*The Magazine of
System in Reading*

How Much of Niagara
Falls Shall be Left?



What Power Compan-
ies Have and What
They Want



To Whom do the Falls
Belong?



Commercialism vs. The
Voice of the People



A Remarkable Cam-
paign and What
Came of It



Temporary Restrictions
of Power Companies



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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

THE MAGAZINE OF SYSTEM IN READING

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What the Power Companies Have Done for Niagara—Unsignificantly
Conditions on Niagara River below the Bridge

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 47.

AUGUST, 1907.

No. 3



THANKS to Judge Farrar of New Orleans, a Democrat and "fair constructionist," and to President Roosevelt, a new idea has been placed before the country for discussion, in connection with the question of railroad control and regulation. It originated with the former and has been tentatively indorsed by the latter. To some it seems revolutionary and subversive of the whole fabric of our government. It is said to sound the death-knell of state rights and state powers, and to spell empire and federal absolutism.

The doctrine may thus be stated: While the power to regulate interstate commerce is plenary and enables the federal government to control all transportation that is interstate and probably everything that directly or indirectly affects such transportation, that power does not extend to commerce and transportation within the states. Must this whole great field be left to state action—or inaction? No; there is a clause in the Constitution which reaches and covers it, the "post roads" clause; that is, the clause which gives Congress power to establish and maintain post roads. Let the government declare every railroad and steamship line in the country a post road, and the power of regulating its traffic will instantly extend to it, so that the government will be able to do in that sphere all that it is doing or may do in the interstate and foreign commerce field under the commerce clause.

Highways and Byways

For the power to establish involves the power to construct, own and operate post roads and all other facilities and instrumentalities that are necessary to the mail service, and involves the power to require that all mail carriers shall incorporate under federal laws and submit to regulation. So that, if necessary, the government can compel all carriers to place themselves under its authority. It is argued however, that no such compulsion would be needful, as all carriers would gladly incorporate under federal laws to secure uniformity of regulation and treatment, should the government suggest it.

The alarmed opponents of this new idea ask what there is to prevent federal regulation of street cars and city highways and streets under this same doctrine. They further ask what the application of the post-roads clause in this sense would leave to the states in the matter of railroad regulation. And they declare that the doctrine is preposterous and contrary to the whole spirit of our political system. The courts, they say, would make short work of it, ruling that to establish post-roads means simply to "designate" such roads, not to construct and operate them.

Of course, the construction of the post-roads clause can only be settled by the federal Supreme Court, but during the discussion many interesting historical facts have been brought to light. The clause was a subject of controversy in the early days of the republic. The framers of the constitution did not think it of particular importance. "The Federalist" calls the power to establish post-roads "a harmless power," and such authorities as John Randolph Tucker thought that it would be a fraud on the people to build roads for other purposes under cover of this clause or to regulate commerce by virtue of the grant.

Be this as it may, the immediate exercise of this alleged power has not been proposed by the President. He merely declared it "probable" that the Farrar idea is sound and that even intra-state traffic can be regulated by Congress, if need be. For the present the President limits himself to the elaboration and extension of the policy embodied

in the new railway rate act. In his recent speeches he reiterated his opposition to government ownership of railroads and his determination to remedy abuse by means of effective regulation. While no injustice to present investors is intended, the administration believes in making inflation and overcapitalization of railroads impossible in the future, in basing securities on actual assets, and in guaranteeing the public fair rates and good service. The Hariman disclosures have furnished the strongest argument for legislation against inflation and stock-watering operations and for revaluation of the property of the railroads, and action on these lines is to be strenuously urged by the administration.



Corruption and Popular Rule

The municipal situation in San Francisco is bad enough, but there is some encouragement in the recent developments for honest friends of good government. They show that the most powerful machines can be overthrown if the upright citizens, or a small group representing them, will fight corruption fearlessly and persistently, and seek the aid of the courts. A few months ago San Francisco seemed "hopeless" to those who knew the extent of the corruption of her officials and those behind them. Today the chief boss, Ruef, is a self-confessed grafter and blackmailer, under sentence of imprisonment, and Mayor Schmitz is a convicted criminal. Ruef was forced to turn state witness and plead guilty to the charge of extorting money from certain restaurant keepers whose license depended on his good will. Schmitz was tried for the same offense and the testimony against him was so clear and strong that the jury unhesitatingly brought in an adverse verdict.

And this is but the beginning of the herculean task of reform. More serious charges against Schmitz, Ruef, the supervisors of the city, and a number of capitalists and leading citizens remain to be tried, and penitentiary

terms, it is hoped, await many of the bribe-givers and bribe-takers.

The people of San Francisco thought that in electing Schmitz they were placing a "labor sympathizer" and "reformer" in office. The trade unions were for Schmitz and his group, and they regarded the municipal government as one that served their proper interests as against an oligarchy. Of course, they have repudiated the faithless mayor and his corrupt and perfidious henchmen. The people of the city are glad that corruption is being exposed and punished, and better times are ahead for poor, much-tried San Francisco. It will have better and cleaner government for a time at least, or as long as the voters bear in mind the painful lessons of the last several months. But here the serious question arises—How long will they keep these lessons in mind? The masses of the people in any democracy are on the side of just government and efficient, honest administration. They are never appealed to in vain on moral issues. But the trouble is that it is very easy to confuse the issues and divert attention from principles to other and lower considerations. As Ambassador Bryce said in a recent address:

"The history of free governments shows that when things go wrong it is not so often from errors of judgment on the part of the people as it is from an excess of party spirit, which has led them to follow blindly an unscrupulous leader, or from an indifference and negligence which has enabled selfish men to pursue their own advantage at the expense of the public."

The causes which have brought shame and trouble to San Francisco are at work all over the country. Graft, indifference to public interest, waste and spoils are evils familiar to most cities, and the way to remedy them is to banish narrow partisanship and cultivate active, earnest attention to public affairs. Crusades and campaigns are good as far as they go, but their effects are temporary and superficial. Eternal vigilance is still the price of good government, and there is no substitute for it though even a

vigilant electorate cannot dispense with proper machinery, honest primary elections, safeguards and methods of controlling, removing and punishing officials.



The Playground Movement

The first annual convention of the Playground Association of America was held in Chicago in the last days of June. The association was organized in April, 1906, by a group of men and women representing many parts of the country and deeply interested in the question of establishing and multiplying recreation centers and breathing spots in our cities, especially in the congested districts of the great communities. There were several local playground associations in existence but the need of national coöperation was keenly felt by all of them. The purposes of the Playground Association of America are stated in its publications to be these: To study playground construction and administration; to experiment with new features; to give publicity to playground information and ideas; to hold national conventions and play festivals and stimulate general interest in the subject.

Chicago was suggested by President Roosevelt, who welcomed the movement warmly, as the right place for the first annual convention. He expressed the hope that "all our large municipalities would send representatives" to "see the magnificent system that Chicago has erected in its South Park section—one of the most notable civic achievements of any American city." Chicago has two-score parks, "squares," and playgrounds, and some of them are models of their kind that have been greatly admired by visitors from other cities, states and countries, having field-houses, indoor and outdoor gymnasiums, swimming pools, running tracks, and so on, as well as reading rooms, club rooms and other facilities and conveniences. Some of these small parks have areas of 60, 75 and 85 acres, and some are very small, not exceeding 90x250 feet. Additions to these

playgrounds are now planned by the park boards and other authorities, bond issues having been authorized for the purpose by the people.

The convention was in every way a notable success. Prominent social workers and philanthropists from all over the country attended, and the local interest was considerable. The discussion at the several sessions took a wide range, and the question was treated from the broad sociological point of view. The speakers considered the relation of rational play and exercise to juvenile delinquency, to vice and filth, to education, to economic well-being, to health and morality, as well as the value of playgrounds in training the young for citizenship and the duties of life by inculcating discipline, order, coöperation, and esprit de corps. The "festival" which followed the formal proceedings displayed the skill of the kindergarten children and the school pupils in games, dancing, gymnastic exercises, drills, and athletics. The report of the convention should be widely read; it is sure to stimulate action by municipalities and private beneficence.



Woman's Rights and the Woman's Labor

The New York Court of Appeals, the highest tribunal in the state, has affirmed the decision of the lower courts in the case which involved the constitutionality of the statutory prohibition of night work for women in factories, mills and similar establishments. The law provided that women should not be employed between the hours of nine in the evening and six in the morning. In the lower courts the grounds for declaring it invalid were these—that there was no reason to think that night work was unhealthy for women, especially if not unduly prolonged; that the statute was too sweeping, in that even one hour's work at night in a factory was made punishable; that the prohibition did not cover women in tenements and in domestic work or in fashionable society, who abuse their health in various ways, in-

cluding dissipation and amusements; and that the police power of the state, while justifying restriction of the labor of minors or even of women in the interest of public health and morals and the physical vigor of the community, did not justify arbitrary and partial interference with contract and personal rights under the mere guise of protecting health.

This decision was severely criticized by some of the judges in strong minority opinions and by enlightened philanthropists and students of industrial and social problems. These held that the state undoubtedly had the power to restrict or prohibit the labor of women at night, and that the welfare and progress of society notoriously demanded such interference.

Now the Court of Appeals, in affirming the adverse decision, takes even more radical ground than the majority of the lower court did in opposing special legislation for women. Its opinion has attracted a good deal of attention for its matter as well as for its style. The court does not admit that woman is today the ward of the state and in need of peculiar protection. The adult woman, it says, has all the rights and privileges and responsibilities of the adult male citizen, and is entitled to be treated as man's equal in every legal respect. To quote verbatim from the opinion:

Under our laws men and women now stand alike in their constitutional rights, and there is no warrant for making any discrimination between them, with respect to the liberties of persons or of contract. . . .

The right of the State to restrict or regulate the labor and employment of children is unquestionable; but an adult female is not to be regarded as a ward of the State, or in any other light than the man is regarded when the question relates to the business pursuit or calling.

In the gradual course of legislation upon the rights of a woman, in this State she has come to possess all the responsibilities of the man, and she is entitled to be placed on an equality of rights with the man. Considerations of her physical differences are sentimental and find no proper place in the discussion of the constitutionality of the act.

These sentiments have been cordially approved by the

New York press and by many newspapers outside of that state. To some, however, it appears a singular fact that the woman who enjoys "all" the rights and responsibilities of citizenship should be deprived of the right to vote—which is hardly a trifling one—and of the right to serve as juror, to say nothing about the right to sit in legislative bodies. It is also curious that this denial of important political and constitutional rights to women as women should be acquiesced in by men who profess to stand for equality and justice. At any rate, it is rather paradoxical to find that the woman who cannot vote or perform jury duty because she is *not* the equal of man must be allowed to work at night for any number of hours because she is the equal of man. The legislature may not protect her health, but it *may* deprive her of many substantial rights of citizenship!



The Second Peace Conference at Work

Once more the powers of the civilized world are in international conference at The Hague to consider questions of war and peace, the promotion of humanity and good will among the nations and the mitigation of the cruelties of war when it comes. On the eve of the opening of the conference pessimistic feelings prevailed. Some ardent lovers of peace even complained that the whole affair was a mockery, inasmuch as war, not peace topics, were about to be discussed and acted upon. The speech of the Russian ambassador at Paris, Nelidoff, who was made president of the conference in recognition of the Tzar's services to the cause of international peace, was not calculated to dissipate the gloomy feelings of these skeptics. It was full of ifs and buts, of reservations, of distinctions between the ideal and the possible, the academic and the practical. War, M. Nelidoff told the conference, would never be abolished, though it was noble to dream of that ideal. Nations, like individuals, would always have their differences and quarrels, and on questions of honor, sovereignty and essential



PROMINENT FIGURES IN THE CAMPAIGN FOR THE PRESERVATION OF NIAGARA FALLS

J. Horace McFarland, President of the American Civic Association; President Roosevelt; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Secretary of the American Civic Association.

Secretary of State Root; Secretary of War Taft; Congressman Burton, Chairman of the Rivers and Harbors Committee of the House of Representatives.



**PROMINENT FIGURES IN THE CAMPAIGN FOR THE PRESERVATION OF
NIAGARA FALLS**

Edward Hagaman Hall, Secretary of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society; Senator Lodge of Massachusetts; Ex-Attorney General Griggs.

Attorney General Knox; Francis Lynde Stetson and General Francis V. Greene, prominent Counsel for the power companies.

interest no power would recognize any other authority than its own judgment and will. He was understood as intending to "throw cold water" on the introduction of the question of reducing armaments and war budgets, and on the question of doing away with the forcible collection of private debts arising from contracts between nations and corporations or individuals. The fact that individuals are compelled to take all their differences into courts of justice and submit to "arbitration,"—except where the duel is still tolerated—the ambassador ignored.

However, his speech produced no deep effect, and at the very next general session two gratifying things happened. The United States and England formally reserved the right to offer in the course of the conference a resolution dealing with the armament-limitation question, and the former country further reserved the right to bring up the "Drago doctrine"—that is, the rule against forcible collection of private debts. It was officially explained by the American delegates that the "reservation" of the former question meant simply that the United States might see fit to introduce it, should the European powers, whom it primarily concerns, neglect to do so. There is thus only a possibility, not a certainty, of its discussion. The Drago doctrine, on the other hand, is sure to be taken up in some form, and some of the old-world powers are more friendly to it than it has been supposed they would be.

The committees of the conference, which are to do the real work, were promptly appointed and many proposals have already been submitted to them. Germany has proposed an international prize court to settle appeals from national courts of this kind. In other ways, too, she has shown herself surprisingly progressive and friendly to the purpose of the conference—perhaps, it is suggested by some, in order to remove the bad impression that was made by her pointed opposition to the armament-limitation idea.

It is now felt very generally that the conference may prove a notable success. All the powers are anxious

to put their best foot forward, to demonstrate their sincere belief in peace and arbitration. The foundation may be laid for more comprehensive treaties of arbitration and better facilities for investigating international disputes, for strengthening the international court and limiting, as it were, the area of war. The other important topics are: The treatment of private property at sea when it is not contraband, bombardment of unfortified cities and ports, the use of balloons and other agents of destruction in war, the laying of mines, notice of hostilities, and so on. The United States is assuming a very advanced position on each of these questions.



The End of the Second Russian Douma

Short and troubled was the career of the second Russian parliament, and its fate did not materially differ from that of the first. It had few moments of peace and security; from the first rumors and threats circulated freely regarding its "undesirable" character from the view-point of the Tzar, the court clique and the aggressive bureaucracy, and the certainty of early dissolution. When, therefore, the decree of dismissal came in the middle of June no one was taken by surprise; though regret was wide and general among the liberal and enlightened people of the civilized world.

The dissolution was a grave blunder, graver even than was the dismissal of the first douma. It was a blunder because the majority did not deserve the criticism which the government made against it in the manifesto that explained and executed its coup, and because it is not true that the second douma had proved itself revolutionary, incapable of constructive and practical work, and indisposed to co-operate with the ministry. On the contrary, the douma, thanks to the constitutional democratic party and its allies, temporary or permanent, had succeeded in taming the extremists on the Left, in bringing about a series of important con-

cessions to the government and in applying an intelligent and consistent policy of conservative liberalism and rational opportunism. Many members, no doubt, were openly hostile to the government and revolutionary in their sympathies and actions; but a parliament is judged by the majority that controls it, not by shifting minorities which obstruct and oppose the majority's policies. According to all honest tests, the second douma was moderate, and serviceable to Russia, though when it first met, its composition showed that it was more radical and more anti-governmental than its predecessor. It became prudent under the discipline of necessity, because it wished to prolong its existence and prevent reaction.

The immediate and ostensible pretext for the dissolution was the refusal by the douma to expel, without inquiry and deliberation, fifty-seven of its members against whom the government preferred charges of conspiracy and high treason. These members belonged to the social democratic faction, and some of them had participated in a secret London congress of that party, a congress that could not be held in Russia owing to police bureaucratic interferences and persecution, and that was held for the purpose of determining the future policies and tactics of the party. The social democrats are not monarchists in theory, as they admit; they believe in a democratic republic; but they have other aims for the present and are working for reforms that are feasible now.

The government had no valid evidence against the deputies whom it wished expelled from the douma in order that it might try them for their alleged crimes. The indictment it read to the douma was vague, flimsy and argumentative. It failed to distinguish between opinions and acts, between agitation against a whole system and plotting against particular persons in power. The douma could not without self-stultification and treachery exclude members on the vague charges of a lawless and arbitrary bureaucracy. It accordingly referred the matter to a committee in spite of an ultimatum from the premier. The government did

not even await the decision of the committee; dissolution promptly followed. It then, to excuse its action, preferred various other charges against the douma, but they were either slight and inconsequential, or else they involved the minority, not the majority, of the body.

The termination of the second douma's existence, however, would not perhaps be a matter of great moment, especially in view of the ordering by the Tzar of new elections almost immediately—in September—and the convoking of the third parliament in November. But the reactionaries and selfish bureaucrats did not work for mere dissolution; they hoped and schemed to overthrow the whole constitutional experiment, to abolish the douma as an institution and revert to absolutism. That was the great danger, and that has again been averted. There is to be another douma, and reaction is defeated on the essential issue.

Yet one feature of the dissolution was grave and alarming, and certainly meant a material victory for the reactionaries. The Tzar deliberately violated the fundamental laws he had himself granted, and modified the electoral law in the interest of the landowners and the supposed conservative elements. The "constitution" provides that no change in suffrage system shall be made without the approval and favorable action of the douma itself, and therefore the Tzar's ukase is a usurpation of power and a reversion to autocratic rule—a tyrannical or anarchical step taken in the name of law and order. If one of the fundamental laws may be changed by arbitrary decree, why not another, why not all of them? In truth, the whole Russian "constitution" becomes a farce and sham in view of this precedent. Certainly the reactionaries have good ground for rejoicing, and the liberals for apprehension and pessimism.

At the same time it should be recognized that there is greater significance in the fact that the douma as an institution has not been attacked, and that the elections have not been postponed indefinitely, than in the fact that the suffrage law has been tampered with and impaired. There is some encouragement in the thought that the upholders

of the old order have not dared to go further than they did.

As to the electoral changes, they are unfair and grotesque, but not radical. No class is directly disfranchised, and no new suffrage tests are imposed. The peasants and the workmen are still to have considerable representation in the douma. But some cities have lost their direct representation and others have been unduly favored. Some disturbed frontier districts have been temporarily deprived of their political rights. Alien elements are to have representation restricted, and landed property is given additional representation in a characteristically crude and arbitrary way. All the changes savor of discrimination and bureaucratic caprice, and the intention is plain. It is the hope of the government that the next douma will be loyal and conservative, or obedient and timid, and that disaffected workmen and intellectuals will be shorn of their strength. In this, however, the government may find itself deceived and mistaken. There are good observers who think the electoral changes insufficient to produce any perceptible difference in the composition and spirit of the douma. In the event of this proving to be the case, will the law again be despotically modified?



New Difficulties with Japan

The settlement of the San Francisco-Japanese school question did not dispose of all the troublesome issues between the United States and the Land of the Rising Sun. Emigration, especially of coolies, Japanese citizenship under our laws, American rights in Japan, etc., remained outstanding, and everybody understood that in dealing with them much tact and diplomatic skill would be required.

For not only are the questions in themselves rather difficult, but they are further complicated by political conditions. In Japan, as in this country, there are parties to "make capital" out of such matters, to attack the administration for alleged sins of omission or commission, and to

"play politics" generally. And there are sensational newspapers in Japan, as here, to magnify trivial incidents, clamor for "action" where patience is needed, sound warnings and create noise and confusion for the sake of popularity and profit.

These facts largely explain the "new trouble" with Japan which has threatened to assume an acute form and has led to a good deal of wild talk about war with that power. In connection with the labor controversies, strikes and political confusion in San Francisco there was an attack on a "non-union" Japanese restaurant and bathing-house. The part which racial prejudice played in that affair is not certain even now, but even if it was considerable, it hardly justified angry denunciation of the United States and demands for sharp protests by the government of Japan. Such, however, were indulged in by the opposition press and party, and serious popular unrest resulted.

It is right for Japan to demand equal protection for her subjects and the enforcement of all their treaty rights. But it is foolish and mischievous to magnify incidents of slight or purely local importance and to jump to the conclusion that the United States cannot or will not do justice to Japanese immigrants or residents where the state or municipal authorities display weakness or inefficiency.

The San Francisco incident has been investigated for the State Department, and it appears that a suit for damages against the city will lie and afford a complete remedy to the injured and aggrieved plaintiffs. The police did not do its duty largely on account of the railroad and other strikes the city was then suffering from; but there was no malice or reckless motive behind the inaction of the local authorities.

Fortunately the Japanese government understood the situation and did not permit the clamor of politicians and jingoes to influence its course toward the United States. Our assurances were received with confidence and good faith, and the fire-eating editors were cautioned by the ministry to restrain the impetuosity of their Hotspurs.

In this country few sane men in public or private life believed for a moment that danger of war was imminent or grave. Not only had Japan no cause for war, but her finances are not in a condition to permit her to entertain the thought of another war at this time or in the near future. Still, this would not excuse any unfairness on our part, and none has been intended. The unfortunate feature of the whole misdirected and sensational anti-American campaign in Japan is that the masses of the people have grown suspicious and unfriendly, so that diplomatic questions needing early attention are likely to encounter prejudice and misapprehension and suffer delay.



Niagara Preservation Number of The Chautauquan

How much of Niagara Falls would be left if the power development companies should get what they want?

How much have they taken away from the Falls already?

What proportion of the water fall will present laws allow to be taken?

Who is to say how much water may be diverted for commercial purposes without impairing the beauty of Niagara?

To whom do the Falls belong, anyway?

These are some of the questions which have induced us to prepare this special Niagara Preservation Number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Most people know in a general way that a cry was raised last year that there was danger of the destruction of Niagara Falls. Perhaps they know that a law was passed by Congress placing the grants of power diversion

under Secretary Taft. But comparatively few people have any idea of the facts regarding power development, actual and proposed; the claims which the power companies have put forth; what has been actually accomplished in the way of temporary restrictions; the pitting of untiring organized commercialism against the more or less fitful expressions of the desire of the people that this national wonder of the world shall be preserved without impairment of its grandeur and beauty.

On the following pages will be found an account of the campaign which resulted in the passage of the Burton bill for the preservation of Niagara, limited to three years.

Compare the estimates of the actual depth of the present flow of water over the crest of the Falls by interested and uninterested observers, and then calculate for yourself how much you think can be safely diverted.

Observe the demands for the Chicago Drainage Canal project and the latest claimant for power from the Rapids. Danger is by no means past with the enactment of the Burton bill.

The arguments made to show that control of Niagara rests with the National Government are especially interesting. And the light thrown upon the international phases of the question of controlling this boundary stream are pertinent to diplomatic negotiations for a treaty with Canada now in progress.

The information presented in this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* is for the most part buried in different government reports. Its importance to the public is obvious, and we believe the publication of it will constitute a distinct public service.

A Brief Summary of the Niagara Campaign

By J. Horace McFarland

President of the American Civic Association.

THE essence of the movement to preserve the scenic grandeur of Niagara Falls, it seems to me, lies in the deep regard evidenced by people all over the United States, and indeed all over the world, for this great natural spectacle. In the campaign for the preservation of the Falls it has been merely necessary to bring to the attention of the people the menace of electric development to the integrity of the cataract to call out a hearty protest.

It has been the function of the American Civic Association, first, to direct attention to the national importance, indeed the international importance, of Niagara Falls, and, next, to focus the protests so that they would reach the proper persons and not be dissipated in useless resolutions or petitions.

It was during the early fall of 1905 that attention was called in a widely circulated magazine to the danger to Niagara Falls, and the beginning of the national movement of protest, brought about by directing appeals for the saving of Niagara Falls to the President of the United States and to Earl Grey, Governor General of Canada, thus took account of the international relation of the Niagara River.

The legal rights of the United States and the international relation of the Niagara River as a boundary stream were presented at the Cleveland meeting of the American Civic Association by Volney Rogers of Youngstown, Ohio, after an appeal by the President of the Association at that time for action in defence of the Falls.

The dignified resolutions telegraphed to President Roosevelt and to Earl Grey brought from the former an immediate response in the way of a reference to his legal and diplomatic advisers. Up to this time nothing had been said to indicate that the United States had any actual

ground for interference with the grants mostly freely given to the power companies by the state of New York.

In rapid succession followed a visit to the President, in consequence of which he made a pointed and emphatic reference to the necessity for preserving Niagara Falls "in all their grandeur" in his message; letters between the Merchants' Association and Attorney-General Moody emphasizing the national jurisdiction; another urgent visit to the President; the discovery that the report of the International Waterways Commission, while properly regarding the national importance of Niagara Falls, yet recommended the vitalizing by Federal legislation of practically all the power grants on the American side; the instant and emphatic protest personally presented to the President by the officers of the American Civic Association and the Merchants' Association of New York and the prompt change of the bill about to be introduced; the hearings before the Rivers and Harbors Committee of the House, at which all the now thoroughly alarmed power interests were represented by multiplied and eminent counsel, and the interests of the people were handled, under the direction of the American Civic Association, by several philanthropic organizations.

When the Burton Bill was passed, after having been viciously attacked and radically changed in form, and when it was signed by the President, June 29, it appeared that at least the outworks had been won, though not in a permanent way, as the provisions of the Burton Bill extend but three years from June 29, 1906.

Secretary of War Taft, in whose custody the Burton Bill placed the Falls, promptly took up his work, and at a hearing held in Niagara Falls July 12, 1906, the side of the people was represented by one person only, the President of the American Civic Association, while some twenty lawyers, including some of the most expensive legal talent in America, pleaded for privileges, each one denying any desire or thought of interfering with Niagara Falls while yet wanting just as much of it as the intakes, turbines and

generators of his company could use. On the same memorable day, the Secretary of War made a personal inspection of all the plants in complete detail, descending even under Horseshoe Fall into the tunnel which has reached to recesses never before penetrated by man, in the very heart of this great cataract. By his kindly insistence, the President of the American Civic Association was permitted to join in this inspection.

Then followed the preliminary order giving to the power companies just what they were then using, with no promise for the future, and recognizing in a way most distasteful to the attorneys of the power companies the place and importance of the protest urged by the American Civic Association, contemptuously designated in his address on July 14 as "an irresponsible organization" by Mr. Francis Lynde Stetson of the Niagara Falls Power Company.

The question of the admission of electric power generated in Canada from water of Niagara Falls was the next point in the battle. A thrice postponed hearing was held November 26, after the members of the American Civic Association and every other organization which could be galvanized into practical action had rained letters and protests upon the Secretary of War for three weeks to his distinct annoyance, and somewhat to his astonishment! At this hearing protest was made against the admission of any electricity from Canada, on esthetic and diplomatic grounds. Opposed to the small gathering of those interested in the fate of the Falls, which included representatives not only of the American Civic Association but of the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society, the Merchants' Association of New York, the New York State Reservation of Niagara and the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York, was a still more formidable array of eminent counsel, together with engineers and promoters of the various power interests and those interested in the commercial developments at Niagara Falls and in Buffalo. Mayor Cutler of Niagara Falls was there, he who had disgraced his office by causing his council to pass and endorse

The Niagara Campaign

a set of wildly objurgatory resolutions calling all the objectors to the development of Niagara power cranks and fools, and indicating the President of the American Civic Association as either a knave or a fool.

At this hearing occurred the incident which seemed to be the only thing of moment to the Washington representative of the Associated Press—a showing of resentment by Secretary Taft at implied criticism of the army engineers, who, while making able and impartial reports upon the actual conditions at Niagara Falls, seemed continually to be considering the financial interests of the power companies as of more importance than the scenic possessions of the American people.

The criticism by Secretary Taft was but passing in its character, and he heeded the representations of the protestants and gave full time and opportunity for the development of the arguments advanced,—indeed accommodating himself entirely to their convenience in the matter of time at the hearing.

At the July 12 hearing at Niagara Falls, the Secretary's attention was called with care and insistence to the abominable conditions created below the Steel-arch bridge by the development of the Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power and Manufacturing Company and its tenants. This had been reiterated in the brief presented at the November hearing, at which time also his attention was called to reports being circulated as to a community of interest between the various power companies tending toward large prices for Niagara electricity in America as compared with those being obtained under governmental supervision in Canada.

At no time had we lost sight of the importance of fostering the diplomatic negotiations which it is hoped will eventually result in a treaty for the efficient preservation of Niagara Falls. An interview with Secretary Root and continual correspondence with him kept us posted as to the rather discouraging conditions, and part of the insistence to the Secretary of War at the November 26 hearing was upon the diplomatic feature of the case.

January 14, 1907, there occurred another hearing, at which the American Civic Association was represented but not in an important way. The hearing was for the purpose of considering the application of the Chicago Sanitary District for the diversion of an enormous amount of water from Lake Michigan, ostensibly to complete the great Chicago Drainage Canal, but actually to provide a deep waterway to the Mississippi River and to develop electric power from the use of water en route. It developed incidentally at this time that nearly a million and a half dollars had been spent by the Chicago officials upon the power scheme, though it may be well understood that they gave no publicity to that fact.

The lack of any necessity for special protest on the part of the American Civic Association at this meeting was evidenced in the presence of a large array of attorneys, engineers and shipping authorities representing the sixty-five million ton shipping interests of the Great Lakes, substantially menaced by the proposed diversion from Lake Michigan of enough water to lower the level of the Great Lakes except Superior and their connecting rivers and the harbors along the lakes, both Canadian and American, to an extent of between six inches and a foot. It was then developed that Chicago was assuming a most remarkable attitude of defiance of all the rest of the world. Mr. Robert R. McCormick, the President of the Chicago Sanitary District, characterized all who oppose the Chicago schemes as "blinded by prejudice and ignorance," and further developed the idea that it was an astonishing bit of impudence for any one to object to anything which Chicago at any time might want, regardless of the rights of the rest of the world! Yet Chicago itself was strongly represented in the lake shippers present, whose commercial interests were thus threatened. Again there was acid criticism of the army engineers, but this time from Mr. McCormick. The outcome of this hearing has not yet been published, but it is deemed improbable that Secretary Taft will give to Chicago more than the 10,000 cubic feet per second assigned for the

Drainage Canal by the International Waterways Commission, all of which is abstracted from the Niagara River and prevented from falling over the great precipice.

Just a few days after this hearing there was published the memorable "opinion" of Secretary Taft, giving his decision in regard to the use of water on the American side and to the admission of electric power from Canada. While the Secretary permitted the use of water and admitted power to the minimum extent mentioned in the Burton Bill, and while the American Civic Association had opposed the admission of any power though not making any opposition to the use of the water already being diverted on the American side, yet his decision, fair and considerate of all parties taking account of the present despoilment of Niagara and yet giving consideration to the vast sums invested there, is accepted by us as distinctly a proper one and as a very great triumph, in fact. It cuts down the diversion of water on both sides of the river through the control exercised over the Canadian situation by the fact that the Canadians cannot sell in their own country much of the power they plan to develop, and that therefore the United States market, controlled by the Federal government, dominates the situation.

Moreover, this decision recognizes most efficiently the protest of the American Civic Association against the unsightly conditions created by the power development at Niagara as above mentioned, for the offending power company is ordered to clean up; and to give it information as to what is expected of it to obviate a condition which the Secretary mentioned as equivalent to an "ill-kept back-yard," a commission, including Messrs. Charles F. McKim, Frank D. Millet and Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., was appointed. The latter gentleman is an enthusiastic member of the American Civic Association, and thus fully represents it in this important work.

The Secretary took account also of the possibility of an injurious combination for increase of prices, and gave fair warning that presentation to him of evidence of such

a combination would be considered in connection with a reopening of the permits, all of which, it may be said, are revocable at his pleasure.

The Burton Bill provides that after six months the Secretary may consider the granting of further permits and the admission of additional power from Canada if in his judgment the scenic glory of the Falls has not been interfered with. While he could not properly declare his intention to refuse consideration of any requests for additional privileges, he did, in response to a letter written by the President of the American Civic Association, say that any such later application would be considered without the slightest reference to any financial investments said to have been made in preparation. He said, in effect, "any man who puts a dollar in after this does it at his own risk." This is fair notice that the way of the power advocate will not be very smooth!

Imminent Danger to the Rapids

In the last days of the Fifty-ninth Congress, a corporation of New York state had introduced, by Colonel Alexander of Buffalo, a bill amending the Burton Bill by permitting its beneficiary to take 40,000 cubic feet per second from the Niagara River below the Falls and from the Whirlpool Rapids. As the Burton Bill very properly recognizes the value of the scenic beauty of the Rapids as well as the Falls, and as the whole of Niagara is the people's possession, this bill was promptly combatted without any great publicity, and it was buried in committee, dying there. Arrangements were made for a sharp scrutiny of appropriation bills in the House and the Senate, so that this assault, which would have meant an opportunity to develop power of a value estimated between four and six million dollars per year, should not be made successful through the medium of a rider upon an appropriation bill.

Meanwhile, efforts are constantly being made to foster the treaty negotiations, and to foster in Canada public sentiment favorable to Niagara preservation.

["Just as this article goes to press, we are advised by President McFarland, that the Niagara question seems to be entering a new phase, consequent upon the recognition by some of the present large power interests at Niagara of the general¹ sentiment of the American people for Niagara preservation. Several of the power companies have made considerable expenditures to preserve the beauty of the surroundings, and should the forces of public opinion in America continue to be manifested for the real preservation of Niagara scenery, it is not considered impossible that the attitude of hostility at Niagara, maintained hitherto by the power interests and by the municipality as a whole, may be changed to an attitude of sincere interest in making a great international scenic preserve between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario, while permitting a moderate and safe use of the water for power production.—EDITOR THE CHAUTAUQUAN.]

The Voice of the People

WHEN it became known to the public at large that there was real danger to the natural beauty of Niagara Falls as a wonder of the world, such a bombardment of senators, congressmen and national officials at Washington occurred that there was no mistaking the sentiment of the American people.

Personal letters poured in upon the national legislators in behalf of "preservation" by means of the Burton bill. Among the United States Senators and Representatives who answered favorably were:

SENATORS FAVORING.

P. C. Knox, Pennsylvania.	Isidor Rayner, Maryland.
S. B. Elkins, West Virginia.	A. J. Beveridge, Indiana.
J. B. Frazier, Tennessee.	W. M. Crane, Massachusetts.
H. C. Lodge, Massachusetts.	Charles Dick, Ohio.
Boies Penrose, Pennsylvania.	William P. Frye, Maine.
W. B. Allison, Iowa.	T. C. Platt, New York.
J. A. Hemenway, Indiana.	John W. Daniel, Virginia.
V. P. C. W. Fairbanks, Indiana.	Thomas S. Martin, Virginia.
S. M. Cullom, Illinois.	John C. Spooner, Wisconsin.

REPRESENTATIVES FAVORING.

M. E. Olmstead, Pennsylvania.	G. N. Haugen, Iowa.
G. E. Mouser, Ohio.	B. D. Sickels, New York.
W. W. Hale, Tennessee.	George A. Pearce, Maryland.
R. M. Nevin, Ohio.	Magar Shirley, Kentucky.
Charles F. Scott, Kansas.	W. Bourke Cochran, New York.
Robert Adams, Pennsylvania.	Jesse Overstreet, Indiana.
D. F. Lafean, Pennsylvania.	J. W. McCall, Massachusetts.
John Dalzell, Pennsylvania.	John W. Weeks, Massachusetts.
S. R. Dresser, Pennsylvania.	Washington Gardner, Michigan.
H. Bard Cassell, Pennsylvania.	Herbert Parsons, New York.
H. H. Bingham, Pennsylvania.	J. Adam Bede, Minnesota.
R. C. Moon.	George P. Lawrence, Massachusetts.
James Burke.	W. L. Jones, Washington.
Newlin W. Gilbert, Indiana.	J. E. Ransdell, Louisiana.
William Sulzer, New York.	G. W. D. McCarthy, Pennsylvania.
J. V. Olcott, New York.	R. P. Bishop, Michigan.
Wm. H. Wiley, New York.	R. E. Lester, Georgia.
J. E. Andrus.	H. S. Boutell, Illinois.
W. E. Jones, Washington.	John Lamb, Virginia.
W. E. Humphrey, Washington.	J. H. Davidson, Wisconsin.
Francis W. Cushman, Washington.	J. S. Sherman, New York.
John Gill, Jr., Maryland.	A. L. Bates, Pennsylvania.
James R. Mann, Illinois.	
J. F. C. Talbott, Maryland.	

The Voice of the People

FROM SENATORS AND CONGRESSMEN.

The destruction of the beauty and majesty of the Falls would be a national misfortune.

C. W. Fairbanks,
Vice-President, Indiana.

It will give me pleasure to support this worthy object in every way possible.

W. M. Crane, Senator Massachusetts.

I am heartily in accord with the movement to preserve Niagara Falls, and intend to do everything in my power to that end.

P. C. Knox, Senator Pennsylvania.

I am most heartily in favor of the passage of the unamended bill, and I shall do what I can to secure favorable action upon it as introduced.

H. C. Lodge, Senator Massachusetts.

I am in hearty sympathy with the spirit of the proposition and will earnestly support legislation having that object in view.

Boies Penrose, Senator Pennsylvania.

I heartily agree with you that it would be a disgrace to sacrifice Niagara for commercial purposes. I shall do everything I can to secure favorable consideration for the Burton Bill.

S. B. Elkins, Senator West Virginia.

I think it is an outrage that any action, looking to the destruction of the falls should be allowed, and I shall be for everything that will prevent it, and is within our power to do.

Shelby Cullom, Senator Illinois.

I am in complete sympathy with you in this matter, and will certainly take pleasure in doing anything I can to bring about the enactment of proper legislation.

J. A. Hemenway,
Senator Indiana.

I will gladly do anything I can to assist in accomplishing such legislation as will preserve this great natural beauty.

Gilbert N. Haugen, Representative Iowa.

You can be quite sure that I will do anything in my power to prevent the destruction or disfigurement of Niagara Falls.

W. Bourke Cochran, Representative New York.

I am in favor of the Government acquiring these falls, and will so vote should opportunity present.

W. E. Humphrey.

Representative Washington.

I have always been opposed to the desecration or destruction of Niagara Falls and when I was a member of the Legislature stopped the passage of any bill to injure the falls in any way.

You can rest assured that I will do everything I can as a member of Congress to put a stop to it.

William Sulzer,

Representative New York.

Flood of Letters Received by Secretary of War Taft

IT took a man fourteen days and evenings and a typewriter nine days to make a list of the addresses, and some kind of classification of expressions from people who wrote to the Secretary of War regarding the use of the water power of Niagara Falls for electric power purposes. He found in the files in round numbers:

- 1,450 letters of protest;
- 5,000 postal cards of protest;
- 100 letters favoring increased grant of power;
- 35 petitions.

Mr. James T. Metcalf who classified the immense correspondence received submitted the following analysis of the various communications:

The postals proved to average better than I anticipated. The English language might be used more vigorously and tersely than in some of these cards, but I doubt whether it has been so employed. Many are wonderful examples of forcible expression gained by using few words.

Concerning the letters the only classification of practicable value was simply to separate them under two heads, the subject matter being:

Class No. 1.—Those making specific request that the War Department refuse to admit electric power from Canada, and, generally, those which covered the subject of restriction of power on either the American or Canadian sides.

Class No. 2.—Those which specifically or in a general way requested the Department to "preserve" and "save" the Falls; and such other letters as could not be properly included in the first-named class.

The division shows about 650 classed as No. 1, and 800 as No. 2.

Those letters favoring the interests of the power companies were, with perhaps a half-dozen exceptions, from citizens of the village of Niagara Falls, or representatives of business interests of that place. I noted that the greater number of these letters were identical in text, simply having different signatures. It does not seem necessary that I should make further report regarding these.

Obviously many of the letters classified in the manner stated covered both subjects, hence this classification was necessarily arbitrary, but the division is sufficiently accurate to enable you to ascertain the relative proportion.

The correspondence is unique, in that the writers are from all walks of life. But much the greater number are persons of evidently high social, business or professional standing. They are ministers, bankers, lawyers, artists, civil engineers, teachers, editors, superintendents of parks, instructors in universities and schools of various kinds, etc.

Business men, representing all lines of finance, trade, etc., students of high-class colleges, and pupils of public schools, are represented in large numbers.

It would seem that nearly all the civic, professional, social, historical, and religious clubs and organizations of the country are represented. It would not be practicable to show the number of individuals belonging to these various bodies, and whose views are in most cases embodied in letters counted simply as from one person, but this membership covers respectively thousands, hundreds and scores of the very best people of the land. It may be assumed, therefore, that while this correspondence names only a few thousands, it is intended to represent the wishes of many thousands.

I have been profoundly impressed with the tone of these letters, which blend indignation, protest, appeal and prayer with eloquence, sentiment, patriotism, fervor and loyalty to country and mankind. They blend sentiment with business; the love of nature with recognition of the handiwork of the Creator; keen indignation with stern protest.

To the personality of this large number who show such ardent interest in this inspiring subject I desire to direct your special attention. I would estimate that women are the writers of about one-third of the letters, and these ladies, as is clearly shown by their letters, are many of the highest social position—those of wealth, education, culture, refinement and highest personal worth.

It is an honor to your association that it has so successfully enlisted the coöperation of the very best people of the land—of many of those most influential in their respective communities, persons of business, professional and social distinction, and I submit that the views of such persons are worthy of most profound respect and confidence.

I have not deemed it expedient to include in the list of names, nor in the aggregate number of letters received, those letters from children; but it is very clear that their interest has been aroused, and their humble appeals in the direction of love of country and nature should also have ample consideration.

Many persons mentioning the fact of their travels in foreign lands, speak of the impressions gained of Niagara by foreigners, and compare favorably the grandeur of the Falls with all other attractions of the world.

The sentiment which in all these years attracted newly-wedded couples to the Falls causes many the keenest desire that their children shall likewise appreciate the beauty and magnificence of this world-famous spot.

Many who reside in the near vicinity, and others who make it a practice to visit the Falls annually, or frequently, have gained from personal observation the knowledge that depletion of water for present manufacturing purposes is "shamefully apparent," and they keenly deprecate that which they term "desecration." It is noticeable that the use of this word is generally meant as the view of the writer that anything that detracts from the natural beauty of the world's greatest attraction is in that sense a "desecration" of the Creator's work.

Popular Expressions of Opinion Upon the Desirability of Preserving Niagara Falls

From the remarkable mass of correspondence sent from every where to Secretary Taft the following have been selected to give some idea of the attitude of the people regarding Niagara preservation:

Mrs. and Robert Smith:

Spent "honeymoon" at Niagara;—and beg you to *preserve* its *full grandeur* for our golden wedding in 1956!

Harvard University—Paul H. Harris:

Our national pride as well as our appreciation of nature's wonders should protest against the further spoliation of the Falls; and our great wealth as a nation could be used if necessary to enforce this protest. We could buy back the Falls, to preserve them for all time, as a monument to our love of nature, and our disapproval of measuring all of our national resources in terms of commercial and industrial success.

Portland, Me.—Chas F. Flagg, Banker:

It seems to me that our rich and powerful country is, in a way on trial before all the world as to whether it values dollars more than the glory of Niagara.

Boston—Stephen Child, Landscape Architect:

It is absurd to believe that the United States is not rich enough to control this great natural wonder and beauty, and to buy back, if necessary, and own Niagara Falls undamaged, regardless of any selfish corporate interests, and all right-minded, patriotic, beauty-loving citizens of this country look to you as the man to put a stop to this matter now, once and for all. May you

The Voice of the People

be privileged to have the honor of placing the seal of approval upon a decision in regard to this matter which shall preserve for all time Niagara Falls in their entirety to the American people.

Boston—G. F. Schwartz:

As a professional forester and landscape architect, but even more as a simple lover of landscape, I appeal for the preservation of the falls. It will be a source of pain and regret to the generations that shall come after us if the power of these impressive falls should be misapplied.

Providence—Lydia C. Beckwith:

Niagara Falls should be kept, as it was originally, one of the grandest spots in the world. If the American people were appealed to they would now give enough money to buy up and root out all the business interests which in being allowed to ruin the beauty of Niagara are disgracing our government.

Madison, Wis.—Martha M. Buell, Pres. Wisconsin Women's Clubs:

Preserve to us and to our children and to this great commonwealth that God-given inheritance, Niagara Falls. May it remain in its entirety, volume and majesty to inspire not only this nation but those of all parts of the globe.

Coshasset, Mass.—Wm. C. Appleton:

It does not seem possible that this can be done without greatly injuring the beauty of the falls, an injury which once done can scarcely be undone, owing to the rights of vested interests. This is a case, if here ever was one, where we should go slowly. No permanent harm can result from caution. Irreparable injury may come from any other course.

Boston—E. T. Hartman, Sec. Mass. Civic League:

If the matter can be stopped now the harm done may in time be remedied. If it goes farther I feel that it never can be undone.

Philadelphia—Fairmount Park Art Association:

The proposed extension threatens to impair seriously the beauty and impressiveness of this wonder of the world, and it is impossible to speak too strongly of the harm that will be done by allowing the desecration to continue. The question is one on which the nation, yes, the world, feels deeply. Stop the present onslaught of commercial greed upon the spectacle which it is our plain duty to preserve for the delight and inspiration of unborn and unnumbered generations.

New York—Florence N. Levy, Editor *American Art Journal*:

When an American admires an European landscape he is at once met with the remark, "But you have Niagara." Unless great care is taken we will no longer be proud of this wonderful natural beauty.

New York—John DeWitt Warner, Attorney:

I urge as peculiarly in my personal knowledge that the scheme for the admission of electrical horsepower from the Canadian side involves the ruin of the falls. That it is seriously urged upon a government that professes to sympathize with its citizens in their wish to preserve this natural beauty and wonder is a grotesque insult to its intelligence and good faith—as much as would be the proposition that one who had carefully plugged a bung-hole in one end of a barrel should stave in the other end.

Boston—C. Preston Ames:

The United States will be the object of scorn of the civilized world, and deservedly so, if we allow Niagara Falls to be diminished in grandeur.

Binghamton, N. Y.—Emma E. Dickinson:

I live in Yokohama, Japan, where water-falls are revered and where beauty of landscape is far more important in the eyes of the people than money-making. May we not learn a valuable lesson from this beauty-loving people, and save our glorious falls from the hand of the despoilers?

Hinsdale, Ill.—Georgiana Barrens:

I am an American missionary living in Japan; and, on my return to this country after nine years' absence, am shocked to find that the practical and utilitarian element in my native land has gained such ascendancy as seriously to endanger the great pride and glory of our natural scenery, Niagara Falls. After witnessing for many years the intense love and admiration of the Japanese for even the slightest fall of water, the contrast is by no means flattering to our own people; and I beg of you to use your influence to maintain at least as high a standard as that accepted in a heathen land.

Turners Falls, Mass.—Julius B. Robinson:

A people who could convert that cataract into a mill-dam would sell the American flag to soap-makers and meat-packers for use on posters and labels. I hope the Secretary of War will defend this capital of nature's empire from sack by these invaders.

Urbana-Champaign, Ill.—E. J. James, Pres. University of Illinois:

Some things are of more importance than cheap power, and one of them is the preservation of such great natural objects of interest as Niagara Falls. To permit the falls to be disfigured or demolished in any respect as an object of natural interest would, it seems to me, be illy paid for by the increment of power which would be secured by the use of these falls for the production of electricity. As long as there is any possibility that a few people by diverting the water there, or by combination with people who have secured franchises, can make fortunes there will be no safety and no hope of saving the falls in the long run. A franchise once given, as we know from the history of such franchises, is a franchise given for ever. The only safe thing is to prohibit such franchises absolutely. It is difficult, of course, to find out what the Americans wish in a matter like this. But I am confident that succeeding generations will curse the memory of ours if we allow this magnificent object of natural interest to be destroyed.

Dubuque, Iowa—Mrs. H. C. Treadway:

America necessarily lacks the many points of historical interest belonging to older nations, but generous nature has endowed our land plenteously with gifts no less rich, and more beautiful than any work of man's. Shall it be said, to our shame as American citizens, that we have failed duly to cherish these great gifts, or unprotestingly permitted their wanton destruction?

Washington, D. C.—Alfred Gaskill:

The United States is building its house. Those who are to live in it demand that every attainable treasure shall contribute to its adornment.

Niagara Falls cannot be spared.

Pittsburg—H. J. Heinz:

No one is more interested in the commercial and industrial growth of this country than I am, but there are some things of higher importance than cheap power, and one of these is the preservation for our children and children's children of the beauty and grandeur of historic Niagara Falls.

Boston—Robert Treat Paine:

Let me add my most earnest appeal to you to do everything in your power to save the full glory of Niagara Falls for all future time! The falls at Niagara are one of the beauties of the whole world, and ought to be kept for ever.

Boston—Chas. F. Dole, Pres. Twentieth Century Club.

I am only one of a great number of people who look confidently to your well-known large-mindedness and public spirit to see to it that "the Commonwealth suffers no harm" in the loss of that splendid gift of nature to the American people—the Falls at Niagara.

Milwaukee—Hon. Sherburn P. Becker, Mayor:

I believe it would be to the everlasting discredit of the American people to permit the grandeur of the falls to be at all diminished for commercial purposes.

Morgan Park, Ill.—Henry J. Bohn:

The contention that the power can be taken and at the same time the beauty of Niagara Falls retained in all its original grandeur and glory is absolutely without common sense.

New York—J. W. Howard, Consulting Engineer:

Kindly note that the request for 160,000 additional horsepower-water is tentatively recommended by one of our engineer officers of the army, who states that "the withdrawal of this water *may* not interfere with the preservation of Niagara Falls." He should state definitely whether it *will* or *will not* interfere, and upon what data, by actual measurements, levels and volumes, he places his decision. Even as a commercial benefit, Niagara Falls earns more money to the State of New York and our country, drawing thousands there as sightseers, than it would earn to a few stockholders in a new electric power plant. I call your attention to the fact that the new power plant will be on the Canadian side, where there is absolutely no market now, nor for a generation, for the power; also that the power will have to be brought by wire and sold to prospective users (not yet found) in the United States at or near Buffalo. This power is not needed there, and, even if delivered, is not sold at a price less than power can be produced from coal. The general development of the industries of our country are best if distributed throughout different states without an abnormal congestion at or near Buffalo or any one point.

Niagara Falls and River Subject to Federal Control

OPINION BY EX-ATTORNEY-GENERAL JOHN W. GRIGGS, BEFORE
THE HOUSE COMMITTEE ON RIVERS AND HARBORS.

Upon the principle which has committed to Congress the right to regulate interstate commerce the United States may, through its executive officers and its courts, if Congress vests in them authority and jurisdiction, control the navigable streams of the United States, and that without regard to who may own the bed of the stream. * * *

The extent to which the United States, through Congress, has heretofore exercised this jurisdiction to regulate navigable streams is not the fullest extent to which that power may be extended. I think some confusion has arisen in the minds of counsel who have addressed the committee on behalf of the power companies with reference to this particular subject, because of the language and framing of the statute under which suits heretofore have been maintained or action heretofore has been taken by the Secretary of War to prevent structures and diversions that would interfere with the navigability of the stream. The river and harbor act of 1890, I think it is, authorized the Attorney-General of the United States to bring a suit in equity to enjoin any structure in or upon a stream which would interfere with the navigability of the stream, and it was under that statute that the suit of the United States *v.* Rio Grande Dam and Navigation Company was prosecuted. The State itself there limited the right to sue to the ability of the United States to prove an actual or threatened impairment of navigability. But the courts have never held that Congress was without power to decide itself absolutely what structures should be permitted and what structures could not be permitted, upon the ground that in the judgment of Congress, without the right of appeal to the courts, it was to the interest of the United States to preserve navigation and prevent those particular things; and

so I think that when Congress, exercising its right to control the navigable streams of the United States, says as to a particular river—and we will instance here the Niagara River—that no water of the river shall be diverted at the Falls by any public corporation, even though it is put in below, that that would be a legitimate and constitutional exercise of the power of Congress over this subject.

Of course, a purely intraterritorial river is subject to the jurisdiction of Congress only because of its navigability, and if, as a matter of fact, it is not navigable, Congress has no jurisdiction over it. But it does not rest with the courts to determine what things Congress, in its wisdom, may say may not be done to affect the navigability; what the purpose and plans of Congress may be, or of the executive department carrying out the laws and will of Congress, it is not for the courts to say; and if Congress, exerting this power to control navigable streams and prevent interference with and diversion of water, sees fit to say that this or that kind of diversion shall not take place, I take it that their declaration on that subject is absolute proof that that kind of a diversion would be an injury to navigation and that that kind of diversion ought to be prevented in the interests of navigation. At any rate, if the object were one of great public benefit, if the purpose to be obtained were a very meritorious one, Congress, in my opinion, would be justified in asserting the power, in putting the power into a statute in time to preserve the rights of the Government before they are lost by delay by acquiescence or laches, which might make it very difficult or very unjust to assert the extreme right. I say Congress would be justified in asserting the very extreme claim of right in a statute and leaving it to anybody that thought he was aggrieved to resort to the courts to have his rights defended and preserved, if they had been impaired. But the right over this particular river, the right of Congress to control the diversion of waters of the Niagara Falls, need not rest in the slightest degree upon the navigability of the stream. If it were a trout brook up which even a skiff could not go,

the Congress of the United States has absolute power to control it, and that is upon the ground that it is a frontier river, a boundary river between this nation and another.

It is conceded public law, no one will question, that without any grant in the Constitution of the nation it has an inherent power—a power of every nation—to protect itself at the frontier against what lies beyond. And therefore from time immemorial nations whose boundaries consisted of rivers, whether navigable or not, have exercised both independent and joint control over those rivers, sometimes by independent action relating only to their own side, sometimes by stipulation and treaty governing by mutual agreement the use of the whole stream on both sides.

Now, the reason for this is perfectly apparent. It arises for one reason out of the right of self-defense. The nation has a right to say what may be done or what may not be done at its frontier on a boundary river in the interest of national protection and defense, and the States and the citizens hold whatever they hold subordinate and subject to that paramount right, and it is not necessary that the nation shall wait until it is in the conflict of war to assert those rights; it has a right to assert them for the purposes of peace. The United States has absolute power to say at what points on its frontier either merchandise or individual persons may enter its territory and how they may enter; it has absolute control over international commerce; it has a right to establish a line of pickets along the frontier, whether it be on land or water, and forbid any person, or such persons as it sees fit to designate, from crossing the river into our territory, or from going from our territory into the opposite territory.

I think if you gentlemen will consider for a moment what must be the powers of a nation with reference to its frontier you will find no difficulty whatever in this subject, and therefore in its constitutional jurisdiction you are seeking, for you have it on these two explicit grounds—on the last one as fully as it could possibly be desired.

Further, this [Burton] bill deals with the subject of

transmitting power from the Canadian side to this side. Can there be any question of the right of Congress to control that? If they can prevent the Canadian fisherman from bringing his catch across Niagara River or across the river at Thousand Islands into the United States and selling the fish, can not they prevent the power company from running its wire across the river and transmitting its power? It has been decided by the Department of Justice in an opinion which seems to have been accepted on all hands as expressing the law of the case that no person has a right to make an actual material connection of the soil and territory of the United States with a foreign territory without the consent of this nation, even though Congress has never acted upon that subject.

You will find the opinion I refer to in the opinions of the Attorneys-General about the beginning of 1898. The opinion was written by the Solicitor-General, Mr. Richards, now judge of the United States circuit court for Ohio, and it is a very able opinion, and the reasoning of it is absolutely sound, and it has been the practice for more than a quarter of a century to require any company desiring to lay a cable on the shores of the United States to connect it with a foreign country to obtain the consent of the Government, and when an attempt was made by the French cable company to land a cable on Long Island without that consent a suit was begun in behalf of the Government without any statute to authorize it, merely asserting its sovereign jurisdiction, and although that suit was never decided, the principle of it was practically acceded to by the cable company in complying with the demands of the Government and securing consent upon the terms that the Government demanded.

Now, if they cannot land a cable to transmit intelligence, cannot Congress forbid their landing a cable to transmit electrical energy?

Reference has been made, I notice, in one of the arguments that I have had the briefest opportunity to look at, to the case of the *United States v. The Rio Grande Dam*

and Irrigation Company, decided in 174 United States. As I have said before, that case was decided under the act of 1890 and 1891, which gave the Attorney-General the right to bring an injunction suit to restrain any interference with navigation. It was also based upon another ground, namely, that the Rio Grande River along the boundary of Texas was a boundary stream, and that the United States was bound to protect it against the depletion of its waters under the obligations of comity with a neighboring country. But the court did not find it necessary to decide the case on that ground at all; but I want to read what they say about it.

Referring to that subject, it says that such questions might, under some circumstances, be existing and important; but here the Rio Grande, as far as it is a navigable stream, lies as much within the territory of the United States as in that of Mexico, it being where navigable the boundary between the two nations, and the middle channel being the dividing line.

Now, the obligations of the United States to preserve for their own citizens the navigability of its navigable waters is certainly as great as any reason of treaty or international law to their citizens, and if the proposed dam and appropriation of the waters of the Rio Grande constitute a breach of treaty obligations or of international duty to Mexico, they ought to constitute an equal injury and wrong to the people of the United States. We may therefore properly limit our inquiry to the effect of the proposed dam and appropriation of waters upon the navigability of the Rio Grande.

They found sufficient jurisdiction in that case to sustain the bill.

Mr. BEDE. I have found Mr. Grigg's argument very convincing to me, but I would like to ask him this question: The titles of the bills introduced are for the preservation of Niagara Falls—

Mr. GRIGGS. That is all of it?

Mr. BEDE. And for other purposes. That goes in all the bills. The point with me is that Niagara Falls itself is an obstruction of commerce. What do you think of a bill the purpose of which is preserve the obstruction to commerce?

Mr. GRIGGS. It may be that it is an obstruction to com-

merce at present, but it does not follow that it will always be. We do not know what the future may hold with reference to the desirability of the United States continuing to hold that and utilizing it for the benefit of commerce. Commerce does not include only navigability. * * * *

Mr. GRIGGS. I suppose they can regulate the rates that people would get for carrying on the Niagara River as one regulation. Is that what you mean?

Mr. DAVIDSON. Not quite. Could they use the water of the river, or the condition in which the river is, for any scheme by which commerce might be benefited?

Mr. GRIGGS. Could the United States?

Mr. DAVIDSON. Could the United States, outside of the use of it to float a ship?

Mr. GRIGGS. Absolutely; they can make a canal of it, subject to the rights of Canada; they can use the power, divert it there, and build a canal like the Welland Canal, for instance. There is no question about that, I think. Your chairman will tell you that he would believe that.

Mr. DAVIDSON. Well, would it go any further than that, if it can be imagined that any other use of the condition there in the interest of commerce and outside of the small matter of transporting, making a passage for a boat?

The CHAIRMAN. An extreme question would be this: Suppose there were a lateral canal there in which there were locks, for the operation of which power was required. Could the power derived from Niagara Falls be used to operate that?

Mr. GRIGGS. By the United States?

The CHAIRMAN. Yes.

Mr. GRIGGS. I have not the slightest doubt of it. They could use the power just as well as they could use the water that flows over by the current to carry the ship down.

Mr. DAVIDSON. That is the idea I wanted to get at, that they could use the river and its conditions, creating power or anything else that would be to the advantage of commerce.

Mr. GRIGGS. Absolutely.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Assuming it is practical to canalize that river, beginning above and going below the falls, and considering further that it would be advisable at some time to do that, would the Government then have to condemn the property of these companies, the companies that are using the water for the purpose of creating power, electric power?

Mr. GRIGGS. I would not want to answer that question positively. It would be a very interesting and difficult question, and the longer Congress remains silent on the subject the more difficult the question will be and the more unjust it will be to interfere with these people. The sooner Congress acts the less they will have to pay, if anything. I do not say they will have to pay anything.

Mr. SPARKMAN. I understand you contend, however, that Congress has power to deal with the river and falls independent of the question of navigability?

Mr. GRIGGS. Yes, sir.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Do you think that Congress, either for one purpose or the other, would have exclusive power to say just what could or could not be done there?

Mr. GRIGGS. I think they would have the exclusive power.

Mr. BURGESS. Here is the situation that confronts us: Whatever the powers of Congress are they have not been exercised. The powers of a State for other purposes have been exercised, and investments have been made under charters authoritatively granted by the State. Would the courts permit Congress to destroy those investments by the exercise of any power, conceding it had the right? That is the same question asked you by your neighbor there, just in another form.

Mr. GRIGGS. I do not wish to give a positive opinion on that, but I say this: If there had been a law of Congress forbidding it of course they could recover no compensation, and the sooner you pass a law of that kind the less of this kind of compensation you will be liable for. I would say this as to the equity of it: That without regard

to the right of a person, when Congress has been silent, stood by and seen people in good faith invest their money—they ought to be sure it is a real investment, and not watered stock—they ought not to let those people lose their money. I do not think it would be right for Congress to sit still and let people make bona fide investments on the strength of that silence, and then boost them out without paying them for it. And that necessitates Congress saying something very quickly on the subject.

Mr. BURGESS. I thought maybe you had looked into that particularly.

Mr. GRIGGS. No; I have not.

The CHAIRMAN. One question a little in the line of what Mr. Bede asks: To what extent can the court in passing upon the bill consider the real motive in passing the bill? This bill has in its title this, "for the control and regulation of the waters of Niagara River, for the preservation of Niagara Falls, and for other purposes." As it seems to me, there is a question of navigation there which assumes very considerable importance. But suppose in attacking the validity of the measure some person should say the real object of that bill was the preservation of Niagara Falls, how far would you say the courts could take up that question and consider the actual motive?

Mr. GRIGGS. I would say this: That the judicial department will never question or inquire into the motives of Congress in passing an act upon a subject over which they have jurisdiction. That was demonstrated by the frequent decisions of the Supreme Court in the tariff acts, where they have been assaulted upon the ground that they were not intended to produce revenue, but were intended to protect manufacturers. The courts have always refused to listen to that plea. The same suggestion of improper motive was raised in the Oleomargarine cases. The court will only inquire whether there was constitutional authority for doing that particular thing, and what the motive of Congress was they will not permit to be questioned.



The American Fall in Winter Time



The American Fall from the Canadian Side



The Canadian Fall from the Canadian Side



The Whirlpool, Niagara River



The Whirlpool Rapids in Niagara River
From which it is proposed to take twenty per cent. of the flow for a New Power Scheme.



The Gorge and Rapids of Niagara River



The Cave of the Winds in Winter



The American Fall as Seen from the Rocks beneath

Mr. ALEXANDER. Do you regard navigability of a stream as a question of fact?

Mr. GRIGGS. It is a question of fact under the statutes as they stand now, because the laws apply only to those which are navigable, and there is necessarily a question of fact in any suit instituted.

Mr. ALEXANDER. If it is a question of fact, General, would the courts have a right to review the question?

Mr. GRIGGS. Well, I would confine that answer to the Niagara River. There is no question but what that is a navigable river. The fact that it is not navigable for boats over the falls and immediately below the falls would not affect the question whatever, because it is a navigable river above and below, and the court would never inquire whether Congress had abandoned forever the right to make it navigable between those two points.

Mr. ALEXANDER. I was seeking your opinion, General Griggs. If navigability is a question of fact, would the court have a right to pass upon the question regardless of the Niagara River?

Mr. GRIGGS. I will answer your question that I think the courts would have a right to decide that a river which Congress had declared to be navigable was not navigable if the facts proved it, sir.

Mr. ALEXANDER. In your letter of January 31, 1906 (and I ask this question by request), you say, "For the purposes of ordinary domestic jurisdiction the river on this side of the center line thereof is under the jurisdiction of the State of New York." I simply ask if that is still your opinion?

Mr. GRIGGS. That is my opinion; yes. I mean by that that crimes committed on the river to the central line are within the State of New York and subject to be tried and determined there, and it is in that sense within the jurisdiction of New York, subject to the paramount jurisdiction of the United States for regulating navigation and for regulating the international boundary.

Mr. DAVIDSON. On that other question of navigability

of the river would the court inquire into the fact as to whether a particular portion of the river was navigable in fact, if it was recognized that other portions of the river were navigable in fact?

Mr. GRIGGS. I do not think they would, if they held in a case that the fact that the river is not navigable at certain points does not make it a nonnavigable river.

The CHAIRMAN. That is, the river must be taken as an entirety?

Mr. GRIGGS. Yes; as an entirety.

Mr. HUMPHREY. Do you remember that case?

Mr. GRIGGS. No.

Mr. GRIGGS (continuing). It was in the Federal courts, the courts have also decided this: That Congress for improving navigation may utterly destroy and abandon a channel of a river in one place and run the channel somewhere else, and are under no obligations to pay damages to those that border on the old channel.

Mr. SPARKMAN. You say that, taking everything into consideration, Congress has the exclusive control over such a stream as Niagara River and the falls not only for the purposes of navigation, but for other purposes, which you explained a moment ago. Excluding those other purposes, would you think it had exclusive power to deal with the question of navigability?

Mr. GRIGGS. I think it has.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Assuming it has navigability?

Mr. GRIGGS. Yes; that is to say, subject to the rights of Canada, of course.

Mr. SPARKMAN. You have just stated that you thought the court would have a right to say a stream was not navigable, although Congress might declare it to be.

Mr. GRIGGS. I think so.

Mr. SPARKMAN. But assuming that a stream is navigable in point of fact?

Mr. GRIGGS. Then their power is absolute.

Has the United States Government Paramount Jurisdiction Over Ni- agara Falls and River?

Dissenting Opinions Given by Counsel for Power Companies

FRANKLIN D. LOCKE, COUNSEL ONTARIO POWER COMPANY.

I think it is clearly established that the Niagara River between the points where water is taken from it and the point at which the water is restored is not navigable, and never has been navigable, and that the Federal jurisdiction extends over that property only to this point; that it may, under its general authority, enter upon that stream and make a navigable channel from the waters above to the water below the falls. It is clearly proven here that no diversion of water which has yet taken place has in anywise interfered with the navigability of Niagara River, and I maintain—and I understand that the committee consists of fifteen lawyers and two gentlemen—I maintain before you lawyers, the Federal jurisdiction rests upon that fact.

J. H. HANSON, ESQ., COUNSEL, NIAGARA COUNTY IRRIGATION
AND WATER SUPPLY COMPANY.

The CHAIRMAN. Suppose Congress should in its wisdom or unwisdom decide that all the water in a navigable stream ought to remain in order that the greatest possible depth might be obtained; and instead of dredging the channel deeper, that Congress should decide to conserve all the waters flowing into a stream; is it not within the power of Congress—

Mr. HANSON (interrupting). I do not think so.

The CHAIRMAN. In other words, your contention is that Congress has merely a sort of prima facie right to control navigable streams, and that the real question is

one of fact to be determined by the courts, and the courts may review the action of Congress?

Mr. HANSON. That is not quite my contention. My contention is that every owner along the banks of a navigable stream has a vested property right to the use of the waters of that stream, subject to the paramount right of the Government to control those waters in the interest of navigation alone; that each right must be enjoyed with due regard to the rights of others; that the Government can not arbitrarily say to the riparian owner, "You may not take any water from this stream," but that the riparian owner may not take so much that the navigable capacity of the stream is ruined or destroyed.

The CHAIRMAN. In maintaining the navigability of a stream, does not Congress have the right to maintain its natural condition and prevent diversion?

Mr. HANSON. I do not think so; not initially, not arbitrarily. I think the riparian owner has the right to use the water to the extent that it does not interfere with the navigation of the stream.

JOHN L. ROMER, ESQ., COUNSEL FOR THE NIAGARA FALLS
HYDRAULIC POWER AND MANUFACTURING COMPANY.

We are not pirates, we are not robbers, we are not engaged in poaching upon the Government domain, but we are doing what we have a right to do, and that right is a property right and the welfare of families, and I might say almost a community is dependent on it, and we do not want it interfered with by Congress, and while Congress in its capacity as sovereign has the right to regulate commerce and so to deal with navigable waters in that way, so far as the interests of commerce may require, I do not think that Congress ought to delegate that right to any one officer of the Government, no matter how wise and good he may be. I think that is a power that should be entertained by Congress to be exercised by its own wisdom, and not delegated to an official.

I do not think Congress has any power or jurisdiction to interfere with the use of those waters at a point in the

stream where it does not inure or pertain to the benefits of commerce or navigation. Your power is limited by the Constitution, as I read it, to just that point.

Here we speak of the beauty and grandeur of the Falls. That is a subject that does not pertain to Congress, and Congress has nothing to do with it. The State of New York might exercise that privilege if Congress could.

The CHAIRMAN. Then you deny absolutely that Congress has anything to say about it?

Mr. ROMER. It has not for that purpose, no sir; that is my judgment.

The Paramount Rights of the Federal Government in Controlling a Boundary Stream

OPINION RENDERED BY FRANK W. STEVENS* BEFORE THE COMMITTEE ON RIVERS AND HARBORS.

The immediate occasion for my addressing you arises from what I have discovered in your printed proceedings, and I beg to take your time for a moment while I read one or two expressions. In the communication from the Secretary of War to the President, which is printed in your proceedings, the letter being dated the 20th of March, I find this language:

The recommendations of the Commission of legislation necessary and desirable to prevent the further depletion of waters flowing over the Niagara Falls suggests the question whether such legislation is within the limitations of the legislative power of Congress, when applied to nonnavigable parts of a stream which is within the borders of a State and which is only partly navigable, if the use of the water to be inhibited does not affect navigation in the navigable part of the stream below.

I also find in the communication from the Attorney-General to the Merchants' Association of New York, on

*Mr. Stevens was recently appointed Chairman of the Public Utilities Commission outside Greater New York, by Governor Hughes.

page 6 of Senate Report No. 1611, the following language:

In other words, I have not attempted to do more than indicate that without denial of the initial rights and functions of the State there is a great unsettled question here of the nature and scope of the Federal power.

So that we have two of three officers of the Government expressing, after some consideration of the case, some degree of uncertainty as to the scope of the powers of Congress in this matter. In addition to this, I find by consulting your printed record that four gentlemen of high professional standing and personal character at the bar have deliberately placed themselves on record before you on this question, in the language prepared by Mr. Hanson, who says:

Our position is that it is not within the power of Congress to exercise any control of the navigable waters of the United States excepting for the purpose of controlling navigation in the interest of interstate and foreign commerce.

Mr. HUMPHREY. Which four gentlemen do you refer to?

Mr. STEVENS. Franklin D. Locke, who represented the Ontario Power Company, and who is a gentleman of the highest standing at the Buffalo bar; Mr. Hanson, who is the attorney for the Niagara County Irrigation and Water Supply Company, which is the same thing as the General Electric Company; Mr. Whitridge, representing the Niagara Falls Power Company, and Paul D. Cravath, who represented the Niagara, Lockport and Ontario Power Company. All of these gentlemen briefly expressed themselves on this proposition that the sole power in relation to the river Niagara is derived from the power of the General Government over navigable streams in relation to commerce. They also deny that you have any power in case the water is taken from a nonnavigable part of the stream and restored before the navigable part is reached, upon the proposition, I suppose, that such diversion and return of the waters can not by any possibility affect the navigability of the stream and that Congress has no other jurisdiction except over the navigability of the stream.

This expression of doubt on the part of the Attorney-

General and of the Secretary of War, and the emphatic declarations of the four gentlemen I have named, have led some of the friends of the preservation of Niagara Falls to request me to address you very briefly on the question of whether there is any power in the General Government outside of the question of its being a navigable stream, outside of the powers conferred by the Constitution and the decisions of the courts over such streams.

I suppose there are only properly two ways of addressing you on that question. The first is to briefly and concisely state the proposition, and leave you to work out the illustrations and various ramifications into which the general doctrine would go; and, second, to make an elaborate legal argument, full of citations of authorities and the like. The second I should hope you would not tolerate at this stage of the discussion, and it will content me fully to express as briefly and concisely as it may be possible for me those considerations which seem to me decisive, and upon which I venture to say that this question ought to be one of first impression, that the General Government has full and absolute power over the waters of a navigable river.

If it has any powers over that river other than the navigability proposition, which I waive entirely at this moment, I suppose that it must be either because it has rights in the stream which it is bound to protect, or that it owes duties and obligations in the stream which it is the duty of the General Government to enforce. In either case, I apprehend that Congress would have full and absolute authority to protect the right or to enforce the obligation. So that the inquiry to which I ask you to direct your minds is, first, whether the General Government, whether the United States, has any rights in a navigable river, outside of the question of its navigability. Assume, if you choose, that the stream from Fort Erie to Fort Niagara were in the condition of the Whirlpool Rapids, absolutely non-navigable. What would be the rights of the General Government in that case? We have to consider that it is a

natural boundary of the country; that as such it affords a most important means of defense. If the Niagara River were abolished—wiped off of the map—and nothing but a level prairie occupied its place, unquestionably the defenses of the United States upon that frontier would be seriously impaired. I take it that the fortification of the city of Buffalo, in the case of any difficulty with Great Britain, would require serious attention at the hands of Congress. It now requires no attention at all by reason of the natural defense afforded by Niagara River.

This question is not new in the history of the diplomacy of the United States. You will find by referring to the proceedings of the Commissioners negotiating the treaty of Ghent, that one of the demands made, or rather a part of the instructions issued by the British foreign office to its commissioners, was that a part of the eastern shore of the Niagara River should be conceded to Great Britain. You will also find that as a part of the history of the case, leading up to those negotiations, it was a demand on the part of Canada that the entire eastern shore of the Niagara River should be ceded to Canada. The British foreign office did not go as far as that, but that is simply to illustrate that the Niagara frontier has always, in the course of our relations with Great Britain, been an important part of our national defense. Now, I need not pursue that idea any further, because what follows from it is so plain a deduction that further argument on my part you will have anticipated already.

Suppose that Great Britain should attempt (and it is entirely practicable from an engineering point of view to do so) to divert the waters of the Niagara River from the channel, and leave but a dry bed there. Suppose that it should start the digging of the channel at Fort Colburn, following the line of the Welland Canal, would it not be a subject of diplomatic intervention on the part of the United States? I insist that the General Government as a part of its functions as a government has the absolute right to protect its boundaries wherever they may be and whatever



The Canadian Fall in Winter



The Canadian Fall from Goat Island

they may be, and if it possesses a natural boundary of great value like the Niagara River, it can protect it against depletion or diversion not only by the adjoining power, but from depletion and diversion at the hands of its own citizens.

It may be said that it is farfetched to suppose that the Niagara River will ever be absolutely diverted. Granted, *arguendo*; it is a question of right; whether the time has come to exercise the right, whether there are any dangers, either present or in the immediate future; it is simply a question of fact and does not touch the right of the General Government to protect that river from depletion and diversion whenever, in the judgment of Congress, it is time to do so.

There is in the same connection another proposition which I have not seen adverted to in any of the discussions before your body, but which probably touches or infringes to some extent upon the navigability proposition, and that is this: You have undoubted jurisdiction over the Great Lakes within the boundaries of the United States, and anything which may in any degree tend to impair the navigability of those lakes or interfere with the harbors upon those lakes is certainly within the jurisdiction of Congress.

Now, the Niagara River is the outlet of Lake Erie, and by any interference with Niagara River, either by building a dam or deepening the channel, it is theoretically possible that the navigability of Lake Erie may be interfered with to some extent, either by damming the lake or lowering its level. A lowering of the bed of Niagara River would unquestionably, other things remaining the same, lower the level of the waters of Lake Erie, and so it seems to me that you would have full power and authority, so far as you could within the boundaries of the United States, to prevent anything which would lower the waters of Lake Erie, and I insist that it is entirely possible that the proposition now pending before you may affect the waters of Lake Erie and their level. I am not going to indulge in any engineering cases, but use the language of Mr. Ran-

dolph when he was before you regarding the Chicago Drainage Canal.

I notice that he there stated that there had been great speculation as to the effect upon the level of Lake Michigan and Lake Huron by the diversion of the waters into the Chicago Drainage Canal, and he stated that the maximum effect of the diversion by the canal with its capacity was that it would or might lower the mean level through a series of years one foot. I think that that was based upon an estimate of 9,000 cubic feet per second. It is not material whether I am right in that or not; it is a small quantity. Yet the Niagara County Irrigation and Water Supply Company, which is the corporate form under which the General Electric Company wishes to use the waters of this river, is proposing to take from the Niagara River several miles above the Falls, through a canal which they say will divert double that amount; and if they have any rights under their charter from the State of New York, they can divert any amount they choose.

They say that to take from the Niagara River will increase its capacity. Any taking of water from the river where they propose to take it will unquestionably hasten the flow, in my judgment, above from Lake Erie, leaving the same exit which is now afforded by the river passing the Falls and the works of this company; and they claim the right—and if there is any right under the charter from New York, they can do it—to construct a canal of any size they see fit, limited only by the commercial possibilities of the case, and what those possibilities are no man can guess. These questions have arisen within the last twenty years. All the questions relating to a natural water boundary of the country are entirely new, because until within a few years such a thing has not been possible.

It is now possible, as is shown by what is going on at the Niagara River and at the Chicago Drainage Canal, and where that possibility stops I do not know, and I apprehend that no living person can with any confidence predict. So that I say that you have the right to control the

waters of the Niagara River upon the ground that it is an outlet of Lake Erie and that any interference with the waters of that river may interfere with the level of the waters of Lake Erie; and you are the judges of that question, and not the courts, as has been argued here, upon the navigability proposition; and I apprehend that any serious lowering of the level of Lake Erie would be something that would not be tolerated by Congress or this committee for an instant.

So far as to the rights concerned. We turn now to another proposition, as to whether the United States owes any duty regarding this river, whether it is under any international obligation, any obligation to the Government of Great Britain, to prevent diversion of the waters of the stream. We may separate that question entirely from the question of fact as to what has been doing upon the Canadian side. We may, for the purpose of the legal argument, I think, stand squarely upon the proposition that Great Britain objects to any diversion of the waters of that river, and, so objecting, it could be made a matter of diplomatic protest, and how much further it might be carried it is not necessary for me to say, that the Government of the United States should permit that diversion of that river. It is physically possible for either Government to divert that river entirely from its present course and turn the waters of Lake Erie into Lake Ontario either east or west of the present course of the stream.

Now, suppose that attempt were made. Serious international complications would arise if it was made by the Government of either of the adjoining powers. Suppose that attempt is made by the individual citizens of either government, what kind of a question have you there? Is it not a part of the duty of this nation, if protest were made, to prevent the people, the citizens, or any person, whatever their jurisdiction, diverting waters? And is it not equally the duty of Great Britain to interpose the same objections upon its own side of the stream? There are other international complications which might arise. If, as claimed,

the riparian proprietors have a right to the use of the waters of the stream as they flow along, the same as any ordinary stream flowing through private lands—if the people upon the Canadian shore have the right to divert the waters for power and then return them to the stream, they have the right to have the current flow in its usual customary manner in regard to the ordinary usage in regard to ordinary streams.

That is the proposition upon which all this power must rest. And yet the proposition is made seriously here to divert from the Canadian side waters to the American side of the stream, to enhance the flow and deepen the channel at the head of Niagara Falls, and they say that it will increase the flow of the stream a large percentage. Now, if you have the right to select that proposition, you have the right to the American Falls. That is the proposition of this company, to deepen the channel sufficiently to take the whole body of the stream there. If you have the right to divert, to make the channel 200 feet wide and 30 feet deep, as the General Electric Company proposes to do, you have the right to permit a channel there which will divert the entire stream, if it is physically possible, and of course it would be by digging your trench deep enough and wide enough, and at once we would have a serious international complication on the ground of interfering with the rights of individuals, and sacrificing them to the right to the use of the stream.

There is no power in this country, I apprehend, which would regulate that upon the American side, except the General Government. The State of New York has no jurisdiction; Great Britain has no recourse to the State of New York upon that question.

So that you may take three propositions—first, the protection of the natural boundary, which affords a natural defense against foreign aggression; second, the preserving of the level of the waters of the Great Lakes, and third, the avoidance of international complications by unduly diverting the waters of the stream; and any one, or all, of

those propositions is sufficient to warrant jurisdiction of the Congress in the case of the Niagara River.

Now, if it be said that none of these touch the preservation of the scenery of Niagara Falls, I grant that. But if you have jurisdiction to prevent the diversion of the waters of that stream at all, there is no power which can inquire into the motive for the exercise of that jurisdiction. The courts will never do that. That has been expressly adjudicated by the United States Supreme Court, so far as an adjudication can be made, in a variety of cases, and I only need call your attention to the case in which that court held that it was lawful to impose a tax of ten per cent. on the currency issued by the State banks. The argument was then made in that case that it was not a tax; that it was an ulterior purpose; that it was simply to wipe out something, instead of affording a revenue. The whole thing was disposed of in the opinion of Chief Justice Chase, who stated that the courts would never inquire into the reason of the exercise of the power; that it was entirely within the cognizance of Congress as to whether it would exercise that power.

No Recompense by American Users

JOHN L. ROMER, COUNSEL FOR THE NIAGARA FALLS HYDRAULIC POWER AND MANUFACTURING CO.

The CHAIRMAN. There is no tax imposed, as I understand it; no payment which must be made into the treasury of the State or county for this use of power?

Mr. ROMER. No, sir; except as it constitutes property which the assessors, as shown in this case here, are entitled to consider; and our assessments have been growing wonderfully for the last ten years up there.

Mr. ELLISS. Do they tax the franchise, the value of the charter, or the privilege that you have there?

Mr. ROMER. Yes, sir. Now, if the chairman pleases, we have nothing but what we would like to show you, etc.

FROM THE REPORT OF THE AMERICAN MEMBERS OF INTERNATIONAL WATERWAYS COMMISSION.

In return for the impairment of the falls thus far authorized the State of New York will receive practically nothing for the 342,000 horsepower authorized on that side,

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and the Queen Victoria Niagara Falls Park will receive an annual rental of \$170,000, or an average of 65 cents per horsepower for the 415,000 horsepower authorized on the Canadian side. These figures do not include the 8,000 horsepower being developed by the electrical railway nor the power developed by the Hamilton Company with water from the Welland Canal.

What the Canadian Companies Pay

Canadian Niagara Power Company.

The company agrees to pay for its privilege an annual rental of \$15,000, for which it may generate 10,000 electrical horsepower or less; for all above 10,000 and under 20,000 horsepower it pays in addition to the above \$1 per annum for each horsepower; for all above 20,000 and under 30,000 it pays a further sum of 75 cents per annum for each horsepower; and for all above 30,000 it pays a still further sum of 50 cents per annum for each horsepower; that is to say, the annual rental for generating 30,000 horsepower will be \$32,500, and for generating 110,000 horsepower will be \$72,500.

The period for which the privileges are granted is fifty years from May 1, 1899, but the company is entitled, at its option, to three renewals of twenty years each, the rentals to be adjusted at the time of each renewal, if the lieutenant-governor in council so desires, and at the end of the third renewal the lieutenant-governor in council may require a still further renewal of twenty years; the entire period thus covered by the agreement being one hundred and thirty years.

Ontario Power Company.

The company agree to pay for its privilege an annual rental of \$30,000, for which it may generate 20,000 electrical horsepower or less. For all above 20,000 and under 30,000 horsepower it pays, in addition to the above, \$1 per annum for each horsepower; for all above 30,000 and under 40,000 it pays a further sum of 75 cents per

annum for each horsepower; and for all above 40,000 it pays a still further sum of 50 cents per annum for each horsepower; that is to say, the annual rental for generating 40,000 horsepower will be \$47,500, and for generating 180,000 horsepower will be \$117,500.

The period for which the privilege is granted is fifty years from April 1, 1900, but the company is entitled at its option, to three renewals of twenty years each, and after the third renewal the lieutenant-governor in council may require a fourth renewal of twenty years, the rentals to be adjusted at each renewal, the entire period thus covered by the agreement being one hundred and thirty years.

Electrical Development Company.

The company agrees to pay for its privileges an annual rental of \$15,000, for which sum it may generate 10,000 electrical horsepower or less; for all above 10,000 and less than 20,000 horsepower it pays in addition to the above, \$1 per annum for each horsepower; for all above 20,000 and less than 30,000 it pays a further sum of 75 cents per annum for each horsepower; and for all above 30,000 it pays a still further sum of 50 cents per annum for each horsepower; that is to say, the annual rental for generating 30,000 horsepower will be \$32,500, and for generating 125,000 horsepower will be \$80,000.

The period for which the privilege is granted is fifty years from February 1, 1903, but the same provisions are made for renewals as in the cases of the other companies, and the entire period covered by the agreement is thus one hundred and thirty years.

Does the American Consumer Benefit?

MR. CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF, SECRETARY OF THE AMERICAN CIVIC ASSOCIATION.

* * * It has not been testified that there has been any cheapening of the power to the consumers. It is merely a commercial venture.

Mr. BEDE. There was testimony as to the cheapening of the power.

Mr. JONES. There has been a project at Buffalo with a reduction from \$65 to \$56.

Mr. WOODRUFF. Would not that reduction be made anyway whether the falls were used or not? For instance, in Philadelphia the price of electricity has been reduced from \$110 to \$90.

Mr. BEDE. That was a result of the recent election.

Mr. WOODRUFF. It was the result of the people speaking.

Mr. BEDE. They testified that they could furnish power for \$20 a year, I believe.

Mr. WOODRUFF. I do not know personally, but Mr. McFarland has told me that there has been no substantial reduction to the consumer as the result of the utilization of the Niagara power. Competition may reduce the price.

* * * *

Mr. DAVIDSON. When you refer to the cheapening of the product to the consumer, you mean the article produced?

Mr. WOODRUFF. Street-car fares or lighting in your house or my house.

Mr. DAVIDSON. But the products which they manufacture throughout the country are not any cheaper?

Mr. WOODRUFF. To the individual consumer?

Mr. DAVIDSON. Yes.

Mr. WOODRUFF. I do not know, nor have I heard any statement as to the cheapening of power to the large consumers or manufacturers, but I mean a cheapening to the man who uses the street cars or the electric lights in his house or for personal purposes.

Mr. MCFARLAND. I would like to say—and Colonel Alexander can correct me if I am wrong—that the city of Buffalo pays as high as \$75 a year for 20,000-candlepower arc lights for its streets.

Mr. WOODRUFF. The city of Harrisburg pays \$46.50 for the same from coal; and I pay five cents for car fares in Buffalo, as you gentlemen do, while here you get six tickets for twenty-five cents, one being by the power derived

from Niagara, which is supposed to be cheap, and the other derived from coal.

Mr. ALEXANDER. In Buffalo we paid \$75 an arc light, but recently they have reduced it to \$56.

Mr. DAVIDSON. They have made a proposition to furnish them for \$56.

MR. CHARLES L. HUNTLEY, VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE CATARACT POWER AND CONDUIT COMPANY.

Mr. HUNTLEY. The price is \$56, and that has been accepted by the common council. I speak authoritatively, and not by hearsay, because I am in charge of the situation absolutely, having made the contract myself.

W. H. GRATWICK, ESQ., PRESIDENT OF THE BUFFALO CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you mean that the prices [of power] on the American side have not been reasonable since Buffalo has been utilizing the power?

Mr. GRATWICK. No.

The CHAIRMAN. And the only way in which it can be made reasonable is by importing power from Canada?

Mr. GRATWICK. I think that the only reasonable way is by competition, and the only source of that competition, and the only one we can get, is from Canada. And, further, I am convinced that we have an increasing number of industries in Buffalo. They are coming every month; they are investing millions of dollars; they will go where they can get the cheapest power, and you will find that if we prohibit the importation of electrical power from Canada a large proportion of these industries will locate in Canada with their American capital and labor.

The CHAIRMAN. Then you favor an unlimited importation of Canadian power?

Mr. GRATWICK. I do.

We can not get competition except through the Canadian power companies. Only recently that competition has made itself felt. The Buffalo Power Company have sold to the city light at \$56, whereas the former price was \$75.

Price of Power

And to private consumers they now charge nine cents per kilowatt, as against twelve cents formerly. There is a tangible result so far as the city of Buffalo is concerned by allowing the Canadian Power Company to come in.

The CHAIRMAN. What is the amount used in Buffalo?

„M. GRATWICK. They are selling about 85,000 h. p.

The CHAIRMAN. They have lowered the price of power in Buffalo?

Mr. GRATWICK. Oh, yes. The city and suburban lines are using it.

Mr. DAVIDSON. What do they pay for arc lights?

Mr. GRATWICK. Seventy-five dollars.

Mr. DAVIDSON. How long have they been paying \$75?

Mr. GRATWICK. Since 1898.

Mr. DAVIDSON. How does it compare with the price in Philadelphia, Baltimore, New York, and other cities?

Mr. GRATWICK. It is about the average price.

Mr. DAVIDSON. So that by reason of this cheap power produced at Niagara Falls, power to the city of Buffalo is not a great deal cheaper than it is in other cities?

Mr. GRATWICK. It is not yet, because there has been only once source from which we could get it. But we are now going to have this additional Canadian source, possibly. Last week the price was reduced from \$75 to \$56.

Mr. DAVIDSON. Was that brought about by competition with Canadian power?

Mr. GRATWICK. Yes, sir. That is the most vital thing to the city of Buffalo today. Do not understand me as advocating giving to every company all the theoretical and technical rights they have. But the city of Buffalo will stand behind you in any proposition which will give us more power at a cheaper rate.

Price of Power to Large Manufacturers

MR. EDWARD G. ACHESON, OF THE INTERNATIONAL ACHESON GRAPHITE COMPANY.

The CHAIRMAN. How much per horsepower do you pay, or is that a secret contract?

Mr. ACHESON. I guess it is commonly known. They start with \$20 per year per horsepower for 1,000 horsepower, and that is diminished as you use it at the rate of 50 cents per horsepower up to an \$18 limit.

The CHAIRMAN. Eighteen dollars is the minimum?

Mr. ACHESON. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. Down there by the Monongahela River, how much would the power cost per horsepower?

Mr. ACHESON. Well, with the little plant that I had—of course, 134 horsepower is rather small—it was costing from \$60 to \$70.

The CHAIRMAN. Suppose you had had seven or eight thousand horsepower down there; what would it cost?

Mr. ACHESON. Probably \$35, or \$40, probably.

The CHAIRMAN. So that the cost of the power here is approximately half what it would be there?

Mr. ACHESON. Yes; but to me the great advantage I spoke of was being able to call upon 1,000 horse power; to pay monthly for power without capital investment.

The CHAIRMAN. You can change the amount at will?

Mr. ACHESON. Yes, sir.

MR. M. A. VEILE, ENGINEER, NIAGARA COUNTY IRRIGATION
AND WATER SUPPLY COMPANY.

If this development alone is carried out to the extent we hope, we will develop 450,000 horsepower. That means a revenue of \$9,000,000 a year, at \$20 a horsepower. That would develop that entire section of the country; it would give manufactured products, as Mr. Cooper said, of \$540,000,000 a year. We expect to transmit the power out through the West as far as Cleveland, going through all that section of country, and helping to develop it and build up their manufactures now unprofitable because they can not get the cheap power which can develop them.

Note.—Just as these pages are closed, it is learned that the Ontario Power Co., a Canadian corporation entirely controlled by American capital has sold power to the cities of Ontario at \$10.80 per horse power per year at the power house—a lower price than that enjoyed by any American consumer.

Analysis of Power Development at Niagara Falls

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UTILIZATION OF POWER AT NIAGARA FALLS.*

Estimate Average Flow of Water over American and Canadian Falls	222,000 cubic ft. per second
Estimated Minimum Flow of Water over American and Canadian Falls	180,000 cubic ft. per second

WATER DIVERTED BY AMERICAN USERS.

Water now actually diverted. Limit permitted under revocable permits.	
Niagara Falls Hydraulic and Manufacturing Co.....	4,000 cubic ft. per second
Niagara Falls Power Company.....	8,600 cubic ft. per second
Erie Canal	333 cubic ft. per second
Chicago Drainage Canal.....	4,166 cubic ft. per second
	10,000 (to be utilized as needed)

Totals	17,000	25,500
WATER AS DIVERTED BY CANADIAN USERS.		
Now in Use.	Limit Permitted by Canadian Govt.	Limit as Determined by Canadian Govt.
Canadian Power Co....2,500 cu. ft. per sec.	9,500 cu. ft. per sec.	Burton Bill. 160,000 H. P. for American use.
Ontario Power Co....2,000 cu. ft. per sec.	12,000 cu. ft. per sec.	350,000 H. P. 50,000 H. P. for Canadian use.
Electrical Devel. Co.	11,200 cu. ft. per sec.	Equals }
Park Electric Co.....	1,500 cu. ft. per sec.	28,000 cu. ft. }
Welland Canal	1,800 (not specified)	210,000 H. P. in all, or 17,500 cubic feet
	1,800 1,800

Totals	36,000	19,300 cubic feet.
Total water actually diverted from Falls at this time by American and Canadian users, 24,099 cubic feet—10.8 per cent of average flow of American and Canadian Falls.		
Total water which will be diverted in near future under grants already made, 44,800 cubic feet—20.1 per cent. of average flow of American and Canadian Falls.		
Total water which may be diverted in near future if Canadian consumption of power warrants the development, 55,300 cubic feet—24.9 per cent of average flow of American and Canadian Falls.		
Total water which will be diverted if American and Canadian grants are utilized to the limit, 61,500 cubic feet—27.7 per cent. of average flow of American and Canadian Falls.		

*Figures tabulated from government reports.

Diversity of Opinion as to Depth of American and Canadian Falls

MR. CHARLES M. DOW, PRESIDENT OF THE COMMISSION OF THE
NEW YORK STATE RESERVATION AT NIAGARA.

Regarding the present water conditions at Niagara, the following report was submitted to me Wednesday, April 18, by Superintendent Perry, of the Niagara Falls Reservation. The computations were made by Supt. E. H. Perry and James Wilson, who is superintendent of the Niagara Falls Victoria Park. Mr. Wilson is a competent civil engineer, a close observer of conditions, and has been superintendent of that park since it was acquired by the Canadian authorities, about twenty years ago.

The width of the crest of the American Falls is 1,060 feet; the average depth of the American Fall at the crest is now 1.22 feet.

Mr. BEDE. Is that on the American side?

Mr. Dow. Yes, sir.

Mr. BEDE. We have had testimony here that it is four feet.

The CHAIRMAN. I think that the consensus of the testimony is that it is nearly four feet.

Mr. SPARKMAN. How deep did you say that it was?

Mr. Dow. 1.22 feet. That information was telephoned to me.

The CHAIRMAN. Was that measured—was it an actual measurement?

Mr. Dow. No, sir.

Mr. RANDELL. Was that taken at a time when the east wind was prevailing?

Mr. Dow. No, sir; the conditions were normal. I took particular pains to be certain of that.

Mr. MCFARLAND. These gentlemen are State employees.

Mr. Dow. One of them is a State employe and one is an employe of the Canadian government.

Mr. BEDE. What volume do you claim goes over?

Depth of the Falls

Mr. DOW. The report explains it.

Mr. BEDE. There is some difference on that point.

Mr. LAWRENCE. Did you say who made these figures?

Mr. DOW. They were made by Supt. E. H. Perry, and Mr. James Wilson, who is superintendent of the Niagara Falls Victoria Park, and has been for twenty years, and who is a civil engineer; and these statements are, to the best of their knowledge and judgment, correct.

The width of the Horseshoe Fall in 1890 was 3,010 feet. Owing to the recession and filling on the Canadian side by power companies the crest line is reduced to approximately 2,500 feet. That is the effect of concentrating the water, narrowing it up, which makes it appear as full as ever. This filling was done in 1904 and 1905.

The average depth of the water at the crest in 1890, as given by the United States engineers, was 8.8 feet; the average depth now at crest, 7.9 feet; the depth of the water at the deepest place, about 12 feet. We determine the depth by the amount of water, the velocity, and the width.

EDWARD HAGAMAN HALL, SECRETARY OF THE AMERICAN SCENIC ASSOCIATION.

Now, under that first subject, the danger to the falls, it seems to me that the statement of the Waterways Commission in section 26 of their report is well borne out. There is a certain mean volume to the falls there. You can compute how much is to be diverted, and you know how much is left. That is a physical proposition. The next question is, is it appreciable. Now, so much has been said on that that I would like to say just one word. Appreciable by what sense? You generally mean the sense of sight. If you had a pail of water 18 inches deep—and I use 18 inches because cakes of ice 18 inches thick have been known to lodge going over the American Falls—and you had that pail filled to the top, and you lowered the water one inch, you would appreciate it, because you would have all the data in your field of vision. You would have the top of the pail and the space between the top of the pail and surface of the water, and you would know that one inch was gone. If you take

an inch off from Niagara Falls you may not appreciate it at first for the reason that the criteria are spread over so vast an area that you can not get them all in into your field of vision. The crest of the American Falls is over 1,000 feet long. But if you take off an inch, that inch is gone just the same, and if you take off another inch, that is gone just the same. If you are out at sea, the tide rises, say, 10 feet, but you do not notice that because you are away from land and you have not the data for comparison and you do not appreciate it.

COL. O. H. ERNST, CORPS OF ENGINEERS, U. S. ARMY.

The CHAIRMAN. I take it, then, your position in the report is that some concession must be made to vested interests; it is not a concession that this amount can be withdrawn without injury to the Falls?

Colonel ERNST. That is it exactly.

The CHAIRMAN. Statements have been made that 40 per cent., or even 50 per cent., of water could be diverted without injury to the scenic beauty of the Falls. What do you say in regard to this?

Colonel ERNST. I do not believe that.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you regard 29 or 30 per cent. as dangerous?

Colonel ERNST. Yes, sir; I think we have gotten the limit, I think we are trying a dangerous experiment with this limit which we have proposed.

* * * *

Mr. LAWRENCE. Then, will you not tell us why you think that a diversion of one-third of the water would injure the scenic grandeur of the Falls?

Colonel ERNST. It seems to me self-evident that if you take one-third or even one-fourth of that water you would certainly diminish the volume of the falls; but when you come to feet and inches I can not tell you, and no other man can tell you, how much the deduction of a certain amount of water will lower that crest; because there is no hydraulic formula to work it out by. The crest is irregular; it is not straight, it is not horizontal, and no man knows

exactly how much water is going over there now. We put it at $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The CHAIRMAN. That is on the American side?

Colonel ERNST. On the American side. The engineer of one company on the Canadian side says that it is only 10 per cent., and another hydraulic engineer puts it at 15 per cent. It is about 10 to $12\frac{1}{2}$ to 15 per cent., and that is all any man can tell you as to the quantity of water going over there. The shape of that crest is absolutely unknown. Engineers have testified here that it has an average depth of four feet. They don't know; there is no way to find out. Some parts of it I know are not over a foot deep, because I saw a log lodged on it the other day—what we call a snag on the western rivers, a dead tree with the branches and roots removed.

MR. CLEMENS HERSCHEL, CONSULTING ENGINEER, NIAGARA FALLS HYDRAULIC POWER AND MANUFACTURING COMPANY.

The CHAIRMAN. You have been quoted, I believe, once or twice. If you desire to address the committee we shall be glad to hear you, or do you appear simply to answer inquiries?

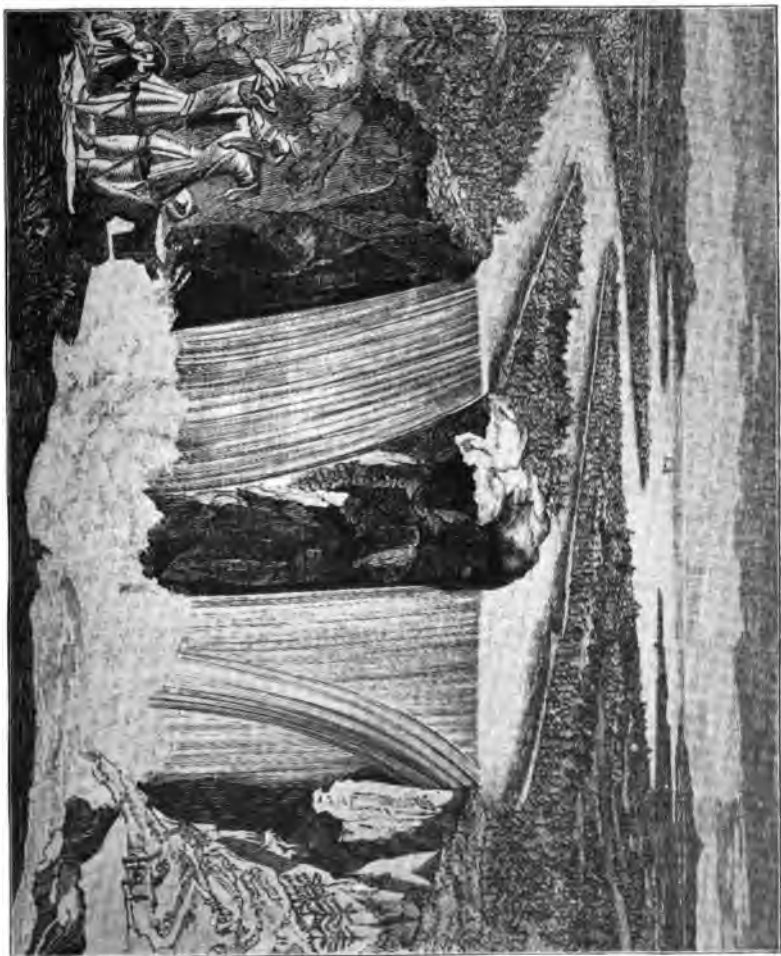
Mr. HERSCHEL. Only to answer inquiries.

The CHAIRMAN. What do you say about the quantity that can be taken from the river without interfering with the scenic grandeur of the falls?

Mr. HERSCHEL. Well, grandeur is a term that is capable of a great many meanings. For myself, I do not know why a cataract of 111,000 cubic feet does not contribute as much scenic grandeur as one of 222,000 cubic feet. I should be satisfied with one of 111,000 cubic feet per second pouring over a fall of about 200 feet in height. I don't know any other that is more grand.

The CHAIRMAN. How do you determine what the result will be of the reduction of the flow? Do you know the contour of the crest on the two sides?

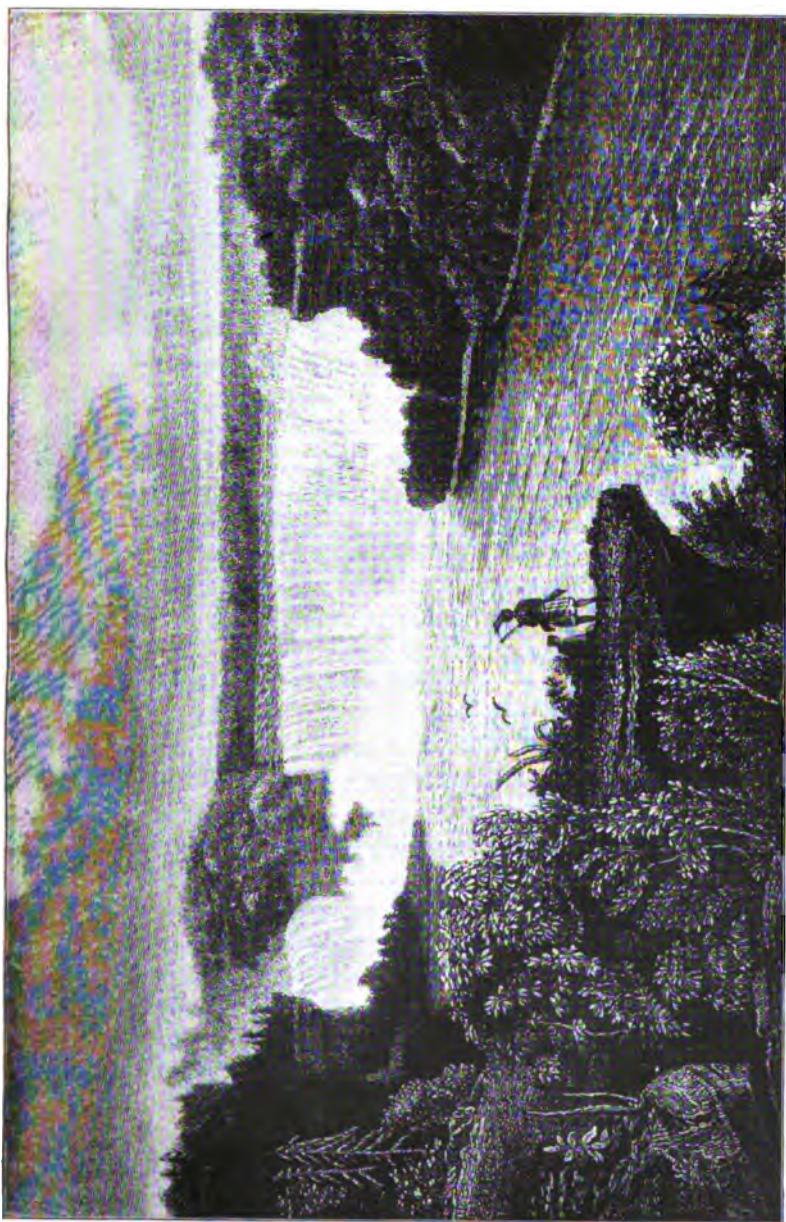
Mr. HERSCHEL. I have known Niagara Falls in a professional way for the last twenty-three years. I think I have done work up there for every company that is there,



The First Sketch of Niagara Falls. Made by Father Hemepin and
Reproduced from his Account Published in 1698.



An Old Painting of Niagara Falls. From a Painting Made by Weld in 1796



From a Painting of Niagara Falls Made by Thomas Cole in 1837



General Plan of Niagara Falls and River

unless it be the last two on the Canadian side. I can not say how many times I have been there. I have made it a subject of study during all these years and have made a number of computations. I know, I presume, about as much about the shape of the crest of those two falls, the American and the Horseshoe, as anybody does.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, do you know what the contour is?

Mr. HERSCHEL. No absolute survey as to depth of waters has ever been made. But if you take the American Falls and consider it a body of water uniformly four feet deep flowing over it, you will have made no violent assumption with respect to the truth; and if you consider Horseshoe Falls a body of water with a depth of 14 feet, you will have made a fair approximation in that case to the truth. I can tell you what the 14-foot measure is based on. There was a time once when as a spectacle a schooner was allowed to go over the falls. That was in the fifties, I think. That vessel drew 14 feet and slid over without touching. So it may be safely asserted that it is 14 feet in depth there.

The CHAIRMAN. Is the depth uniform from side to side? Is there not a greater depth in the center than at the two sides?

Mr. HERSCHEL. Most certainly; but 14 feet is a fair representation of that falls.

Mr. LAWRENCE. Then we are to understand that the result of your study and observation is that 50 per cent. of the quantity of the stream can be diverted without marring the beauty of the fall?

Mr. HERSCHEL. Yes; I should say that.

MR. BRACKENRIDGE, ENGINEER, REPRESENTING CITY OF
NIAGARA FALLS.

Mr. ALEXANDER. How deep do you say it is two feet out from Prospect Point, right on the crest of the Falls?

Mr. BRACKENRIDGE. As we looked at it today, I should think about 10 or 12 inches—10 inches probably.

Mr. ALEXANDER. And out seven feet, as we looked at it today?

Mr. BRACKENRIDGE. About the same.

Mr. ALEXANDER. Where does the green water begin—how far out?

Mr. BRACKENRIDGE. Thirty or 40 feet from the shore, probably.

Mr. ALEXANDER. How deep is it there?

Mr. BRACKENRIDGE. I have been trying to hedge that question. I think that it gets at that point about two feet deep, and I think there are points from there on to the middle of the Falls where it is three feet deep, and probably in some places over three feet. Now, the ledge where that log was suspended which you referred to I saw today; it was at a very shallow point on the brink of the Falls. If the log had come down in the middle of the channel at the deeper point it would have gone right over the Falls, but it happened to land where the water was very shallow.

Q. I suppose no one has taken any measurement of the Falls on either side, as to their actual depth; that is, you can not tell by measurement what the depth is?—A. Not in all parts of it, because they are not accessible.

Q. The American side—what would you say was the range in the depth; from what minimum to what maximum?—A. On the American side?

Q. Yes.—A. Well, of course there is a great variation in the depth, due to the direction of the wind.

Depth of the Falls



Intake and Plant of the Canadian Niagara Power Co. at Horseshoe Falls

Q. At a normal stage, unaffected by the wind and about the normal flow, what would you say the depth was on the American side?—A. At about a normal flow, which is giving it about 224,000 cubic feet a second, the depth varies from three to four inches on the one side to perhaps three feet or over.

Q. How much over three feet, would you say?—A. I should think $3\frac{1}{2}$, possibly four, feet in the deepest point.

Q. That is on the American side?—A. Yes; that is my judgment.

Q. What would you say as to the depth on the other side, on the Horseshoe Fall?—A. It is very difficult. We have always assumed, taking the proportion of the flow and the amount of water passing over the Falls, that it must be about 12 to 14 feet deep in the deepest point. We can get a very good idea of the depth near the shore as far as the rock is visible, but after that we lose sight of it, and there is no way to approach it by which measurements can be made.



Excavating the Canadian Channel for one of the Power Plants

Q. Would you think 12 or 14 feet was the maximum?

—A. I should think that was about the maximum.

* * * *

Mr. BRACKENRIDGE. I have always considered that about 40 per cent. was about the amount that could be diverted without really seriously injuring the appearance of the Falls.

MR. H. L. COOPER, ENGINEER, NIAGARA COUNTY IRRIGATION
AND WATER SUPPLY COMPANY.

The CHAIRMAN. What is the depth of the Horseshoe Falls and what is the depth on the American side, respectively?

Mr. COOPER. The average depth on the Horseshoe side is assumed to be somewhere in the neighborhood of 8½ feet.

The CHAIRMAN. And on the American side?

Mr. COOPER. On the American side three feet nine inches to four feet.

Depth of the Falls

Mr. ALEXANDER. What is the depth of water at the point where it goes over the precipice?

Mr. COOPER. That is what I am talking about now.

Mr. ALEXANDER. That is, three feet on the American side?

Mr. COOPER. Three feet and a half to four feet and a half on the American side; and from eight feet to nine or ten feet, according as the wind blows, on the Horseshoe side.

Mr. ALEXANDER. You say that all the water that is taken out now and proposed to be taken out by the works when they are completed will not reduce that water, which is three feet in depth, more than three inches?

Mr. COOPER. More than three inches; that is a fact capable of absolute demonstration.

Mr. JONES. Then how much water do you think could be diverted from the Niagara River without interfering with the scenic beauty of Niagara Falls?

Mr. COOPER. Without the doing of any further work, you mean?

Mr. JONES. Yes; under the present conditions?

Mr. COOPER. Well, I should say that under ordinary conditions an engineer would not be able to discover that business unless 40 to 50 per cent. was taken out. That seems to you, gentlemen, like an unreasonable statement, as it does to everybody at first, but it is a fact.

The CHAIRMAN. You were interrupted when you were explaining how the 40 or 50 per cent. could be withdrawn without destroying the scenic beauty. Is there anything more you desire to say on that subject?

Mr. COOPER. I mean to say this: That the people who want the scenic beauty—most of them a very estimable portion of our population—don't know anything about the quantity of water, and I say that as to quantity of water, whether it is 40 per cent. or 30 per cent., it can not be told by an engineer by the looks of it; and if that is so, what is our school man going to be able to tell about it? I am reminded of a German who went there and looked at the



View of Niagara Falls at Rear of Pittsburg Reduction Co.—Canal Diverting Water

American Falls, and then went and looked at the Horseshoe Falls, and his only remark in looking at the Horseshoe Falls was, "What a wonderful place to sponge pants!" I say we can prove all those things—

The CHAIRMAN. That is a very excellent bit of pleasantry, but that does not answer the question, which is a scientific one and to which we would like to receive a scientific answer—

Mr. COOPER. All right, sir; I beg your pardon if I did not understand the question.

The CHAIRMAN. How can you withdraw 40 or 50 per cent. of the water and not destroy the scenic beauty of the Falls?

Mr. COOPER. The length of the crest would be practically the same in each case, and you can not tell anything about the depth of the crest inside of those limits by looking at the water flowing over it. That is the specific answer to your question.



Gate House of the Ontario Power Co.

The CHAIRMAN. That is, the width of the Falls would be the same?

Mr. COOPER. Practically the same.

The CHAIRMAN. That is, you eliminate the idea of the volume of the flow having anything to do with the scenic beauty or grandeur of the Falls?

Mr. COOPER. Yes, sir; I think within those limits the volume is not susceptible to the eye or ear.

Mr. BURGESS. You think, in other words, that if the water is three feet deep, it would look as pretty and sound as well as if it were six feet deep?

Mr. COOPER. I do not think it would be discernible whether it was three feet deep or four feet deep.

JOHN L. ROMER, COUNSEL FOR THE NIAGARA FALLS HYDRAULIC POWER AND MANUFACTURING CO.

Mr. LAWRENCE. What is your opinion as to the amount of water that can be diverted without impairing the beauty of the Falls?

Mr. ROMER. That is a question for the engineers rather than for me.



Mouth of Canal—Niagara Falls Power Co.

Mr. LAWRENCE. I expect that you have given it a good deal of thought, though.

Mr. ROMER. We have given it a great deal of thought. Mr. Cooper said that it was 40 per cent. I struck me while he was saying that, that 40 per cent. is a little high. I would not undertake to say about that. Mr. Harper is our engineer. What do you say, Mr. Harper?

Mr. HARPER. I believe that the abstraction of water could be made 33 per cent. from the Canadian Falls, and 20 per cent. from the American Falls, without greatly destroying the scenic beauty.

Mr. LAWRENCE. How much would that amount to, put in cubic feet—the total?

Mr. ROMER. That would amount to something slightly in excess of the amount stated on page 9 of this waterways commission report, or in the neighborhood of 70,000 cubic feet.

Mr. HUMPHREYS. You say without destroying the beauty of the Falls?

Depth of the Falls

Mr. LAWRENCE. You did not mean to make it as strong as that, did you?

Mr. HARPER. I meant without seriously affecting it.

Mr. LAWRENCE. This would make it 70,000 cubic feet per second?

Mr. HARPER. Yes, sir.



Generating and Transforming Station of the Niagara Falls
Power Co.

Shall Commercialism or Esthetic Altruism Dominate ?

FROM THE REPORT OF THE AMERICAN MEMBERS OF THE INTERNATIONAL WATERWAYS COMMISSION.

If all the water and all the head from the top of the upper rapids to the foot of the falls could be utilized, there would result over 4,000,000 mechanical horsepower. Probably space could be found, if desired, for works which would utilize about half of this, or, say, 2,000,000 horsepower, or possibly more. As they could not utilize all the head, they would use much more than half the water. It will require time to create a market for all this power, but it is reasonably certain that it will in due season be found if the development of the power itself is to go on unchecked. The difference in cost in favor of falling water over any other method of developing power is so great that all other methods are sure to be abandoned where sufficient water power is available. The difference at Niagara Falls is probably not less than \$15 or \$20 per annum per horsepower. The cost of transmission to distant points increases with the distance, and finally becomes so great as to be unprofitable; but electrical engineers are engaged in improving the methods and reducing the cost. An average difference of cost for each horsepower can not now be given with any close degree of approximation, but the difference, whatever it is, is a perpetual annual saving, which, if capitalized, will show that the commercial value of the power at Niagara Falls is very great and is to be measured by the hundred millions of dollars.

Whether this commercial asset shall be utilized to such an extent as to seriously impair the majesty and scenic beauty of the falls depends upon the public will. In our opinion the commercial advantage of a large increase in development of power will not compensate for the great loss to the world of the inspiration, esthetic education, and opportunity for recreation and elevating pleasure which



The American and Canadian Falls from the Bridge. On the left is the Inland Railway. On the right, across the River, is the "Italian Renaissance" Power House of the Ontario Power Co.



View of American Fall from Goat Island



Interior of Power House of the Niagara Falls Power Co.

the mighty cataract affords. The direct advantages to the public from revenue is nothing on the New York side of the river, and comparatively slight on the Canadian side. There is of course an indirect advantage due to added taxable wealth and reduction in the cost of power, but these advantages are, in our opinion, slight in comparison with those which spring from the preservation of the beauty and majesty of the falls in their natural condition. Over 800,000 people visit the falls annually, deriving pleasure and inspiration from them. The nations of the world have always recognized the great value of parks and reservations, and throughout the civilized world they have preserved places of natural grandeur and beauty and furnished parks, artificially beautified, for rest, education, and the elevation of their people. An illustration may be given in the case of the city of New York, one of many hundreds. There the municipality has acquired, in Central Park, property which is estimated to be worth \$225,000,000, and has spent millions upon improvement and ornamentation. The

United States Government has reserved lands of striking picturesqueness, grandeur, and interest, regardless of their value. These illustrations would seem to prove conclusively that the people are not inclined to offset mere commercial values against the intangible but none the less great advantages found in the preservation of the great works of nature. . . .

(a) The glory of Niagara Falls lies in the volume of water rather than in height, or in surrounding scenery.

(b) Works are now authorized and partially completed at the falls which will divert from the Niagara River above the falls about 27 per cent. of the average discharge, and about 33 per cent. of the low-water discharge, which is more than double the quantity now flowing over the American Fall. In addition to this, water naturally tributary to the Niagara River is being diverted through the Chicago Drainage Canal, and for power in addition to navigation purposes through the Erie and the Welland canals.

(c) The effect of this withdrawal of water is to injure both the American and the Horseshoe falls in nearly equal proportions. While the injury will be perceptible, it may not be destructive or disastrous.

(d) Improvements in the transmission of electric power and increased demand will make a market for all the power which can be developed at Niagara Falls, and will cause a destruction of the falls as a scenic spectacle if the development be allowed to go on unchecked.

(e) Charters have been granted to corporations which propose to divert additional amounts in quantities not now limited.

(f) The sums of money invested, or being invested, in the works now in operation or under construction, and in the industries dependent upon them, amount to many millions of dollars. It is probably not expedient to attempt the withdrawal of the rights thus utilized.

(g) The commercial value of the water power at Niagara Falls is very great, but if compared with values set

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aside by wealthy communities elsewhere for park purposes this value is not too great to be devoted to similar purposes. The place is visited annually by about 800,000 people.

EUGENE CARY, ATTORNEY-AT-LAW, OF NIAGARA FALLS.

There has grown up here in the last few years a city—the mayor did not fully state the growth, because the Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power and Manufacturing Company began taking water from here in the seventies—and the little village of four or five thousand has grown to the city of nearly 30,000. Here processes have been put in operation by cheap power, which are not merely completing an industrial development here, but which will contribute to the industrial development of the whole nation. Here aluminum, which is used in making Government armor plate, has been reduced nearly to one-half its former price and being manufactured on an enormous scale and the company is planning to largely increase that product and has already contracted for the machinery and apparatus. Bleaching powder, entering into so many processes, is being made here cheaper than ever before and other processes of the same kind, the use of which and the benefit of which is not confined to this Niagara frontier, but which enter into processes of manufacture all over the United States. I think it is within the bounds to say that the passage of this bill will strike a blow to material interests not less in effect than the Baltimore fire—a destruction of material interests as great as that will take place by the passage of this bill.

Now, as I say, there can not be any question in my mind that no impairment of the Falls at the present time has taken place. I would like to quote the language of one of our oldest residents, published in the paper a week ago. He said: "Few can say as I can, that they have lived within the sound of the cataract for seventy-five years and for more than fifty years within gunshot," and then goes on to say that he would not misrepresent; the simple truth is sufficient; go and look upon the river—look upon the tumultuous rapids and ask when, except when affected by

very high winds, was the flow of water greater than today? There are numerous gentlemen in this city of the very highest character and standing who can be produced before you and who will testify to the same effect.

Now, gentlemen, I submit that the development of the industrial resources of the nation has always been a matter of Congressional concern; every tariff bill upon our books from the foundation of the Government testifies to the interest of Congress in the industrial development of the Nation, and we ask that this bill be so amended as to permit a further industrial development in so far as it can be done—at least in so far as it can be done without material injury to the beauty of the Falls. The test of the effect of this diversion of water is the human eye. Until the eye of the average observer can see that the Falls has been injured by diversion no injury has been done to scenic beauty. Of course these matters have all been carefully considered by you, but I speak here to testify for the people of this city, who love the Falls as much as the people of any community can, that this talk of injury up to date has been grossly exaggerated.

FRANK A. DUDLEY, ESQ., COUNSEL, NIAGARA FALLS ELECTRICAL TRANSMISSION COMPANY.

While it is perhaps difficult to justly weigh the relative importance of benefiting the material or the esthetic side of mankind, the great mass of our people can not afford the time or money to obtain the "esthetic education" for which the Falls seems principally useful in the opinion of the Waterways Commission. The power developed has enabled the State of New York, through its manufacturers, to produce directly and electro-chemically many of the most important products for the progress, comfort, and well being of all our people. I might mention flour, food products, paper of all kinds, caustic soda, bleaching powder, numerous by products from chlorine, aluminum, graphite, carborundum (now used as a substitute for emery), phosphorus products, carbide for acetylene gas, sales

slips, machinery of nearly all kinds, silverware and cutlery, and, in fact, almost all manufactured products known, and by reason of new methods in manufacture, made possible by electric power, the price to the consumer has been and is bound to be materially lessened.

Many products heretofore principally obtained from foreign countries are now produced in western New York by the use of electric power. Not only will we obtain the benefits of new and cheaper products, but continuous employment will be given to a great number of our citizens. It seems to me it is equally as beneficial to mankind to permit of those things which will contribute to their material welfare and give them employment, food, clothing, and homes, as it is to educate their esthetic tastes.

What is true of Niagara Falls is proportionately true of every beautiful river and falls in the United States. Van Dyke says he gets the most enjoyment out of little rivers. Others like best the turbulence of Niagara, the Columbia, and the Snake. It takes the beautiful rivers of the west and destroys their falls and cataracts to reclaim the vast American desert, and this is being done by Congress on the suggestion of our President.

The Great Snake River, with its mighty falls at Shoshone of over 200 feet—one of the great spectacles of this country and the only falls that can be compared with Niagara in volume of water and exceeding it in length of descent—is, I believe, to be largely sacrificed in the great Shoshone irrigation project—this for agricultural purposes.

It takes the waters from the beautiful rivers and falls of the State of Washington to irrigate the great Yakima Valley, the agricultural part of that State, and to develop the power that is now assisting in producing those empire cities on that sapphire sea, Puget Sound. . . .

We do believe it highly commendable that steps should be taken to preserve the scenic features of the falls, but in doing so we do not believe it necessary to confiscate property or destroy manufacturing, commercial, and railroad enterprises entered into, now partially or nearly completed.

The Power Companies' Esthetic Sense

FRANCIS LYNDE STETSON, REPRESENTING THE NIAGARA FALLS
POWER COMPANY AND CANADIAN NIAGARA COMPANY.

I would be willing to give a tenth of all I have in the world, and more, to restore all along Niagara River from Buffalo to Lewiston the glorious forests that once stood there, as now they stand on Goat Island; on either side of the stream, to restore it in every respect, in every surrounding, in scenery, in all that will constitute the elements that gratify the lover of landscapes and the glory of nature, following, as I have many times, the course of the river from Chippewa Creek to Lewiston, where you get the counterpart of Cole's Voyage of Life; starting in the placid waters of the upper Niagara, with childhood's innocence of danger, then rushing through the turbulent rapids and plunging over the cataract of youth and early manhood; coursing through the lower rapids in the vigor of full maturity; and at last coming out into life's placid finish as you enter the fond and shining embrace of Lake Ontario.

I defy any man to love Niagara River and Falls more than I. The love of those who have spoken in the words of the poet, as compared to mine, "Is as moonlight to the sunshine, and as water is to wine." I repudiate and scorn the idea that any advertising agency or propaganda, however powerful, has a monopoly of the love, or of the proclamation of love of Niagara and Niagara Falls.

I maintain, then, that I am entitled to speak as one who knows and loves, and would respect and perpetuate Niagara Falls in all its glory and in all its sublimity. Is that a mere statement? Is that contested by my acts? Am not I one of these people who would turn that power to commercial use? Am not I one of these people who are resisting the efforts of others who, under the sham application of the commerce clause of the United States, are endeavoring to turn the Federal Government into an agency to destroy commercial development? Yes, I am; I am one of those. I think that, within reasonable bounds, it is

better for mankind that to this extent the waters of Niagara River should be so employed, as we can not now restore the primeval conditions which I would prefer.

POWER NOT DEVELOPED FOR PROFIT ALONE.

Mr. McFarland refers to the greed of these companies. The extent of that greed may be indicated by the fact stated by me at the July hearing, that for fifteen years the Niagara Falls Power Company has been contented to continue with a cash investment of over \$20,000,000, receiving only ordinary interest upon the cash investment represented by its bonds, and without a dollar of dividend upon its stock, in which alone could be found any opportunity for real profit. A corporation whose activities and energies are directed to and satisfied by the return of ordinary interest can not justly be accused of greed.

I understand that some comment has been made upon the statement that no dividends had been received as being a statement that means nothing. It means everything. It means that we have received only ordinary interest, and that always the profit has had to go back into the property, and there it stands today, with the stock selling at 50 cents on the dollar. I say that, so far as the Niagara Falls Power Company is concerned, it was not started with the main purpose of commercial profit. There was never a promise of large commercial profit. Men were attracted, and perhaps deluded, with the idea of the useful service that they were rendering to mankind by producing electrical power in this novel way, of which we were the pioneers for the whole world. . . .

As I say, this company is now delivering more than 100,000 horsepower at prices which, though misrepresented and ridiculed by Mr. McFarland, are readily accepted by hundreds of users, and this without compulsion.

Nobody is obliged to use our power. All of the takers could have continued to use steam engines. Why should they use our power to the extent they are using it—100,000? Why do none of them give it up? . . .

When this charge was made a most remarkable state-

ment resulted. Every user of Niagara power in the city of Buffalo—not one, not two, but everyone—wrote us a letter, and those letters were published, covering two full pages of the Buffalo papers, showing their satisfaction with our service. We have no trouble with our customers.

Let us see what these prices are. The Niagara Falls Power Company has published its schedule for standard ten-hour meter power at a rate which offers a maximum use of 100 horsepower and an average use of 75 horsepower for a month of 250 hours, at an aggregate price of \$144.17. This compares with the following reported charges in six important northern cities:

Boston	937.50
Philadelphia	839.25
New York	699.37
Chicago	629.43
Cleveland	559.50
Rochester	419.62
Niagara Falls	114.17

In the face of such figures, who can doubt the beneficent effect of the operations of the Niagara Falls Power Company, furnishing power at not more than one-fourth of the cost in New York, Chicago, or Cleveland, and at less than one-fifth of the cost in Boston or Philadelphia?

The Function of the Niagara Improvement Commission

By Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr.

IN exercise of the discretion allowed to him under the Burton Act the Secretary of War decided, as a condition to the issuing of permits for the use of the water of Niagara for power purposes and for the importation of power derived from the water of Niagara, to require that certain needlessly objectionable features incident to the development and use of the power should be mitigated; and as a commission to advise him in specifying what features must be changed and in what manner, he appointed

Charles F. McKim, Frank D. Millet and Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., and assigned Captain John S. Sewell and Captain Charles W. Kutz. The instructions of Secretary Taft to this commission were to specify any practicable improvement in the conditions affecting the scenery of Niagara which could be made by the users or importers of power and the cost of which would not be unreasonably large in view of the present investments of the companies.

The commission has held meetings in New York and at Niagara, has carefully examined the conditions on the ground and conferred with representatives of the power companies and the authorities in charge of the State and Provincial Reservations, and is now engaged in preparing its report to the Secretary.

It is apparent that the recommendations of the commission, concerning such immediate improvements as the Secretary of War can require the users of power to make, must be confined to matters of detail, chiefly in the district along the Gorge on the American side just below the suspension bridge. This is a manufacturing district which has grown up in the same helter-skelter fashion and with the same disregard of decency, cleanliness and orderly appearance that has generally characterized the "back sides" and especially the river banks of American manufacturing districts. The Gorge of Niagara, in full view of those who come to enjoy the beauty of its scenery, has simply been used as other river banks in manufacturing districts have been used, for the dumping of rubbish of all sorts. In common with hundreds of other less conspicuous manufacturing localities it exhibits a complete indifference to the qualities which distinguish the homes of civilized men and women from those of savages or the premises of a good housekeeper from those of a slattern. The kind of changes which are soon made in her surroundings by a tidy, cleanly, energetic woman, however poor, when she is so unfortunate as to come into a tenement that has been left in a dirty, shabby, disorderly condition by the previous tenant, or which quickly take place in the

looks of a dirty, ill-disciplined steamship when a competent first-officer takes hold of her, may reasonably be demanded in the fringes of the manufacturing district at Niagara under the authority which the Secretary of War derives from the Burton Act. But such changes do not convert a tenement house into a palace or an Arcadian cottage, nor a tramp steamer into a yacht, and they cannot be expected alone to convert a conspicuous manufacturing district that has grown up under stimulus of the narrow commercial individualism of the nineteenth century into a harmonious element in the scene of impressive natural grandeur for the sake of which the public goes to Niagara Falls.

There remains to be considered soberly, earnestly, patiently, and with the greatest breadth of outlook, with due regard for all points of view, economic, esthetic and social, this question: In what way can Niagara be made of the highest service to mankind, and by what practicable course of action during the next twenty-five years can that end best be promoted?

Develop Power Until Falls are Improved— Then Buy off Companies

W. CARYL ELY, REPRESENTING THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE
OF BUFFALO, N. Y., BEFORE SECRETARY TAFT.

The United States Government certainly is not called upon to exercise some great, mighty, mysterious, and inchoate power to do something to this stream. That is not called for. The United States Government is not going to deprive any of its citizens of their property without making due compensation therefor, and why should we not proceed in disposing of these matters along intelligent lines, and when, if ever, Niagara shall be impaired in her beauty or grandeur, then let compensation be made, fair and just compensation, and all the water of the Falls resumed by the Government if such shall be the desire.

It never was intended by this legislation that contract rights that have been created and which are beneficial to

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hundreds of thousands of the citizens of the State of New York and of the United States should be interfered with arbitrarily, nor that rights upon which millions of dollars have been expended and upon the faith and reliance in which thousands of people have changed their habitations and removed to places about the Falls should be rudely stricken down. On the contrary, as it has seemed to me was justly interpreted by the Secretary, those rights and investments of capital should be preserved in so far as was not inconsistent with preserving the integrity of the Falls themselves.

In conclusion, I must say that it seems to me that the field of sentiment has been unfairly invaded; that some one has run amuck among the good-feeling esthetic people of the United States, and as usual under such circumstances produced harm rather than benefit. Sentiment governs the most sacred relations of our lives. Almost all marriages in this country are matters purely of sentiment, and the family is the very foundation of our institutions. Sentiment governs us in our best actions, but that is proper sentiment founded upon fact and correct conception. Sentiment that has been produced by misstatements and garbled facts, for the purpose of bringing pressure to bear upon public officers in the discharge of their duties, is unworthy of attention, and it dishonors those who, yielding to it, join in an unworthy undertaking, and disgraces those who are guilty of working it up. I can not refrain, sir, from making this allusion to the methods of some of those who have sought in an improper way to create an atmosphere here that would render it difficult for you to dispose of this matter in any other than the way consistent with their desires.

MR. FRANK A. DUDLEY, COUNSEL FOR THE NIAGARA FALLS
ELECTRICAL TRANSMISSION COMPANY.

Mr. DUDLEY. I am interested in the Electrical Transmission Company as I have explained, and I will ask that we be permitted to carry out our contracts. That is as far as I represent the power company in which I am can-

cerned, and as representing the city of Niagara Falls and other municipalities through western New York, I will state that the amount of water diversion which will impair the scenic qualities of the Falls ought to be definitely determined. In my opinion that amount has not yet been reached, and will not be reached even by taking power desired by the General Electrical Company. Whenever that is ascertained or reached then it will be time to prohibit further development along that line. I do not wish to advocate any power monopoly because I am not interested in them, but there is a time coming when, after due and serious deliberation, the development of any further scheme may be prohibited.

The CHAIRMAN. Then you would favor waiting until the time is reached when the beauties of the falls are materially injured by the diversion of the water before you would favor legislation?

Mr. DUDLEY. No; but I would say that the information that has been given to you has been—except of course as to the statement of the International Waterways Commission—largely misinformation, and until you obtain the accurate facts you will not be able to determine when the time is reached that the falls are in imminent danger. No franchise which is now outstanding will ever impair the scenic qualities of the falls. . . .

Mr. LAWRENCE. What percentage of the flow do you consider it would be safe to be authorized to be diverted?

Mr. DUDLEY. There would be no risk in anything up to 30 per cent.

The CHAIRMAN. Then you do not agree with Mr. Cooper's estimate of 40 to 50 per cent.?

Mr. DUDLEY. I do not recall what his estimate was.

The CHAIRMAN. Your general opinion is that it should be not more than 30 per cent.?

Mr. DUDLEY. I should say that surely there should be no risk of impairment if that amount of water were diverted.

Mr. LORIMER. The American Falls is more shallow

over the crest than the Canadian Falls, and a like percentage would more quickly affect the scenic beauty there than it would on the Canadian side.

Mr. DUDLEY. Not necessarily, because the waters will readjust themselves. If a certain amount of water were to be taken from the American side it would be unwise to take more than 30 per cent.

The CHAIRMAN. Some estimate has been made of the amount that might be taken on the Canadian side near Goat Island.

Mr. DUDLEY. I do not know about that. So far as the electrical company is concerned—that is, the company in which I am interested—the amount it takes does not affect the falls one particle. . . .

The CHAIRMAN. You say you think it is desirable to take measures to preserve the scenic beauty of the Falls. The committee desires information on that point. What measure do you think should be taken to preserve the scenic beauty of the falls?

Mr. DUDLEY. I was never called upon to consider that until last Friday, but my mind has been working rapidly ever since, and yet I do not know that I have come to any conclusion that would be worthy of presentation to this committee. I do not think, however, that the limit has yet been reached, so far as it relates to the diversion of water, which will affect in any way (at least to the observer) the scenery of the Falls. A prohibition can be imposed whenever it is determined that prevention of further diversion of the water is necessary—a prohibition that would accomplish results.

Power Permits Under the Burton Law

Opinion by Wm. H. Taft, Secretary of War.

TEN or more applications have been filed in this Department for the issuing of permits by the Secretary of War, part of them for the diversion of water for power from Niagara Falls on the American side, and the remainder for the transmission of electrical currents, developed from water diverted from the Falls on the Canadian side, into the United States. These applications are filed under what is known as the Burton Act, passed June 29, 1906, and entitled "An Act for the control and regulation of the waters of Niagara River, for the preservation of Niagara Falls, and for other purposes."

The first section of the act forbids the diversion of water from the Niagara River, or its tributaries in the State of New York, except with the consent of the Secretary of War, as authorized in Section 2, with a proviso, the meaning of which is not here important.

The second, fourth and fifth sections of the act I set out in full as follows:

"Sec. 2. That the Secretary of War is hereby authorized to grant permits for the diversion of water in the United States from said Niagara River or its tributaries for the creation of power to individuals, companies or corporations which are now actually producing power from the waters of said river, or its tributaries, in the State of New York or from the Erie Canal; also permits for the transmission of power from the Dominion of Canada into the United States, to companies legally authorized therefor, both for diversion and transmission, as hereinafter stated, but permits for diversion shall be issued only to the individuals, companies, or corporations as aforesaid, and only to the amount now actually in use or contracted to be used in factories, the buildings for which are now in process of construction, not exceeding to any one individual, company or corporation as aforesaid, a maximum amount of eight thousand six hundred cubic feet per second, and not exceeding to all individuals, companies or corporations as aforesaid an aggregate amount of fifteen thousand six hundred cubic feet per second; but no revocable permits shall be issued by the said Secretary under the provisions hereafter set forth for the diversion of additional amounts of water from the said river or its tributaries until the approximate amount for which permits may be issued as above, to-wit, fifteen thousand, six hundred cubic feet per second, shall for a period of not less than six months have been diverted from the waters of said river or its tributaries, in the State

of New York; provided, that the Secretary, subject to the provisions of section five of this Act, under the limitations relating to time above set forth is hereby authorized to grant revocable permits, from time to time, to such individuals, companies or corporations or their assigns, for the diversion of additional amounts of water from the said river or its tributaries to such amount, if any, as, in connection with the amount diverted on the Canadian side, shall not injure or interfere with the navigable capacity of said river, or its integrity and proper volume as a boundary stream, or the scenic grandeur of Niagara Falls; and that the quantity of electrical power which may by permits be allowed to be transmitted from the Dominion of Canada into the United States, shall be one hundred and sixty thousand horsepower; provided further, that the said Secretary, subject to the provisions of section five of this Act, may issue revocable permits for the transmission of additional electrical power so generated in Canada, but in no event shall the amount included in such permits together with the said one hundred and sixty thousand horsepower and the amount generated and used in Canada, exceed three hundred and fifty thousand horsepower; provided always, that the provisions herein permitting diversions and fixing the aggregate horsepower herein permitted to be transmitted into the United States, as aforesaid, are intended as a limitation on the authority of the Secretary of War, and shall in no wise be construed as a direction to said Secretary to issue permits, and the Secretary of War shall make regulations preventing or limiting the diversion of water and the admission of electrical power as herein stated; and the permits for the transmission of electrical power issued by the Secretary of War may specify the persons, companies or corporations by whom the same shall be transmitted, and the persons, companies or corporations to whom the same shall be delivered.

"Sec. 4. That the President of the United States is respectfully requested to open negotiations with the Government of Great Britain for the purpose of effectually providing, by suitable treaty with said government, for such regulation and control of the waters of Niagara River and its tributaries as will preserve the scenic grandeur of Niagara Falls and of the rapids in said river.

"Sec. 5. That the provisions of this Act shall remain in force for three years from and after date of its passage, at the expiration of which time all permits granted hereunder by the Secretary of War shall terminate unless sooner revoked, and the Secretary of War is hereby authorized to revoke any or all permits granted by him by authority of this Act, and nothing herein contained shall be held to conform, establish, or confer any rights heretofore claimed or exercised in the diversion of water or the transmission of power."

The third section provides a punishment for violations of the act, and the method of enforcing it.

The plain purpose of the act is to restrict, as far as lies in the power of the Congress, the diversion of the water from the Niagara River above the Falls in such a way as to reduce the volume of the water going over the Falls, and the plan of Congress in so doing is to effect this

purpose by directly prohibiting the diversion of water on the American side, and by taking away the motive for diverting water on the Canadian side, by denying a market for electrical power generated on the Canadian side in the United States. The prohibition in the act is not absolute, however. It is clear that Congress wished, so far as it could, to accomplish its purpose with as little sacrifice of the pecuniary interests of those who had actually made investments, on the faith of the continued unrestricted diversion of water on the American side, or the continual unrestricted transmission of electrical power from Canada into the United States, as was consistent with the preservation of the integrity and volume of the Niagara River passing over the falls.

The International Waterways Commission, a body appointed under a statute of the United States to confer with a similar body appointed under a statute of Canada, to make recommendations with reference to the control and government of the waters of the Great Lakes and the valley of the St. Lawrence, have looked into the question of the amount of water which could be withdrawn on the American and Canadian side of the Niagara River without substantial injury to the cataract as one of the great natural beauties of the world, and after a most careful examination they have reported, recognizing fully the necessity of preserving intact the scenic grandeur of the Niagara Falls, that it would be wise to restrict diversion to 28,600 cubic feet a second on the American side of the Niagara River (this to include 10,000 cubic second feet for the Chicago Drainage Canal), and to restrict the diversion on the Canadian side to 36,000 cubic feet a second. This report was in answer to a resolution of Congress calling for an expression of opinion, and thereupon Congress provided that the Secretary of War should be permitted, but not required, to issue permits in the first instance for the diversion of 15,600 cubic feet on the American side of Niagara River and in the Erie Canal, to persons or corporations actually engaged in the diversion of water and its use for power

on that side, for six months, with leave to increase the same after six months shall have shown the effect of such diversion, if it will not affect the scenic grandeur of the Falls. Congress further provided in the act, with reference to the power generated on the Canadian side, that the Secretary of War should be authorized, but not required, to issue permits for the transmission of 150,000 H. P. from the Canadian side to the markets of the United States, and then provided that he might issue revocable permits for the transmission of a larger amount, provided that the total amount transmitted, together with that generated and used on the Canadian side, should not exceed 350,000 H. P. or the equivalent of the diversion from the falls of about 28,000 cubic feet of water.

I have already said that the object of the act is to preserve Niagara Falls. It is curious, however, that this purpose as a limitation upon the granting of permits by the Secretary of War is only specifically recited in reference to his granting of permits for diversion of additional amounts of water over 15,600 cubic feet on the American side, which are to be limited to "such amount, if any, as in connection with the amount diverted from the Canadian side, shall not interfere with the navigable capacity of said river or its integrity and proper volume as a boundary stream, or the scenic grandeur of Niagara Falls." This peculiarity in the act is significant of the tentative opinion of Congress that 15,600 cubic feet of water might be diverted on the American side and 160,000 electrical H. P. might be transmitted from the Canadian side without substantial diminution of the scenic grandeur of the Falls. Undoubtedly Congress left it to the Secretary to reduce this total thus indicated in the matter of permits, if he differed with this intimation of the Congressional view. Acting, however, upon the same evidence which Congress had, and upon the additional statement made to me at the hearing by Dr. John M. Clark, state geologist of New York, who seems to have been one of those engaged from the beginning in the whole movement for the preservation of Niagara Falls, and who has given

close scientific attention to the matter, I have reached the conclusion that with the diversion of 15,600 cubic feet on the American side, and the transmission of 160,000 H. P. from the Canadian side, the scenic grandeur of the falls will not be affected substantially or perceptibly to the eye.

With respect to the American Falls, this is an increase of but 2,500 cubic feet a second of what is now being diverted, and has been diverted for many years and has not affected the Falls as a scenic wonder.

With respect to the Canadian side the water is drawn from the river in such a way as not to affect the American falls at all, because the point from which it is drawn is considerably below the level of the water at the point, where the waters separate above Goat Island, and the Waterways Commission and Dr. Clark agree that the taking of 13,000 cubic feet from the Canadian side will not in any way affect or reduce the water going over the American Falls. The water going over the falls on the Canadian side of Goat Island is about five times the volume of that which goes over the American falls, or, counting the total as 220,000 cubic feet a second, the volume of the Horseshoe Falls would be about 180,000 cubic feet. If the amount withdrawn on the Canadian side for Canadian use were 5,000 cubic feet a second, which it is not likely to be during the three years' life of these permits, the total to be withdrawn would not exceed ten per cent. of the volume of the stream, and considering the immense quantity which goes over the Horseshoe Falls, the diminution would not be perceptible to the eye.

I have given full hearing to the American Civic Association and others interested in the preservation of the Falls, but nothing has been brought forward that has any evidential force, to affect the soundness of these conclusions.

By my direction, Captain Charles W. Kutz, of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. Army, made an investigation into the circumstances of each corporation applying for permits for diversion or transmission. The subjects upon which Captain Kutz was ordered to report are described in my memo-

random opinion of July 14, 1906, as follows:

"It is necessary that the Secretary of War should know before final action is taken by him, in the matter of permits, for transmission, the capital already invested in the Canadian companies, the degree of completion of the plant, the amount likely to be sold on the Canadian side of the current, the time when the plant shall be ready for operation; the amount now actually produced; the amount now actually transmitted to the United States; the amount invested not only in the production of the current but in the plant and machinery for its transmission, including the poles and wires, and all the details; and also the capital invested by the American companies who are to receive in the first instance the current thus produced; the forms in which that capital is, and the contracts into which they have entered both with the Canadian companies and with the companies or persons to whom they expect to sell the current; the dates of these contracts, and all the circumstances tending to show the extent of the injury that a refusal to grant the permits requested would cause to the investment of capital, together with the question of whom the contracts were made upon which the claims for the use of current are based, with a view to determine the good faith with which those contracts were entered into; and whether the threatened passage of law induced their making."

Captain Kutz has made a report both with respect to the companies applying for permits on the American side and those applying for permits on the Canadian side, and I wish to express my great satisfaction at the thoroughness and spirit of judicial fairness with which Captain Kutz and those associated with him have done their work.

Taking up first the applications for permits for diversion on the American side, there is no room for discussion or difference. The Niagara Falls Power Company is now using about 8,600 cubic feet of water a second and producing about 76,630 horsepower. There is some question as to the necessity of using some water for sluicing. This must be obtained from the 8,600 cubic feet permitted, and the use of the water for other purposes when sluicing is being done must be diminished. The Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power & Manufacturing Company is now using 4,000 cubic second feet, and has had under construction for a period long antedating the Burton Act a plant arranged to divert 2,500 cubic second feet and furnish 36,000 horsepower to the Pittsburg Reducing and Mining Company. A permit will, therefore, issue to the Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power & Manufacturing Company for the diversion of

6,500 cubic second feet, and the same rule must obtain as to sluicing as already stated.

As the object of the Act is to preserve the scenic beauty of Niagara Falls, I conceive it to be within my power to impose conditions upon the granting of these permits, compliance with which will remedy the unsightly appearance that is giving the American side of the canyon just below the falls on the American side where the tunnel of the Niagara Falls Power Company discharges and where the works of the Hydraulic Company are placed.

The representative of the American Civic Association has properly described the effect upon the sightseer of the view toward the side of the canyon to be that of looking into the backyard of a house negligently kept. For the purpose of aiding me in determining what ought to be done to remove this eyesore, including the appearance of the buildings at the top, I shall appoint a committee consisting of Charles F. McKim, Frank D. Millet and F. L. Olmsted to advise me what changes at an expense not out of proportion to the extent of the investment can be made which will put the side of the canyon at this point from bottom to top in natural harmony with the Falls and the other surroundings, and will conceal as far as possible the raw commercial aspect that now offends the eye. This consideration has been kept in view in the construction of works on the Canadian side and in the buildings of the Niagara Falls Power Company above the Falls. There is no reason why similar care should not be enforced here.

Water is being withdrawn from the Erie Canal at the Lake level for water power purposes, and applications have been made for permits authorizing this. Not more than 400 cubic feet is thus used in the original draught of water that is not returned to the canal in such a way as not to lower the level of the lake. The water is used over and over again. It seems to me that the permit might very well be granted to the first user. As the water is taken from the canal, which is state property, and the interest and jurisdiction of the Federal government grew out of the indirect

effect upon the level of the lake, the permit should recite that this does not confer any right upon a consumer of the water to take the water from the canal without authority and subject to the conditions imposed by the canal authorities, but that it is intended to operate and its operation is limited to confer, so far as the Federal government is concerned, and the Secretary of War is authorized, the right to take the water and to claim immunity from any prosecution or legal objection under the fifth section of the Burton Act. I shall refer the form of permit with these directions to the International Waterways commission to prepare.

I come now to the question of the permits to be granted to the applicants for the right to transmit electrical current from plants generating it on the Canadian side from the Niagara River.

The applicants are four: The International Railway Company, which applies for a permit for 8,000 H. P.; the Niagara, Lockport & Ontario Company, speaking in its own interest and that of the Ontario Power Company, for 90,000 H. P.; the Electric Transmission Company, speaking for itself and the Electrical Development Company, for 62,500 H. P.; and the Niagara Falls Power Company, speaking for the Canadian Niagara Power Co., for 121,500 H. P.

Captain Kutz recommended that the International Railway Company be not granted any permit, but that out of the 160,000 H. P. 2,500 be reserved in order that it might be granted to the International Railway Company when that Company shall have obtained permission from the commissioners of the Queen Victoria Niagara Park to transmit the current through the Park. The question of the Company's right is pending before the Dominion Government. Some years prior to 1901, this Railway Company, which owns all the railways in Buffalo and neighboring cities and towns, bought a Canadian electric railway running from Chippewa to Queenstown, together with a bridge just below the falls, and one at Lewiston, so as to make a loop with the railways on the American side. For this Canadian railway, the applicant paid \$1,323,000. It had a small power plant located

in the Queen Victoria Park, and under its charter could only use power generated therefrom to run the Canadian railway. In 1901, this charter was amended so as to permit the use of electricity for its railroads on both sides, and the plants have been developed by the expenditure of \$265,000, so that it now can generate 36,000 H. P. The effective head is 68 feet, so that it takes about twice as much water to develop this power per horsepower as in the great plants I shall hereafter describe. It is quite clear that the original investment in the purchase of the railway was not made to secure the transmission of electric power across the boundary, because there was no power to do so under the charter. The subsequent investment of \$265,000 can perhaps be said to have been made with this in view. Captain Kutz recommended that 2,500 H. P. be reserved for this company. The commissioners of Queen Victoria Park refused to approve the plans of this company for a transmitting line to the boundary, so that it cannot now use the electricity except on the Canadian line where it uses 1,240 H. P. It generates now 8,600 H. P. The permit of 2,300 H. P. would effect a saving of \$30,000 a year. The investment for transmissions to the United States does not exceed \$265,000. All that can be reasonably expected from the outlay under the circumstances is not to exceed 7 per cent. of the remainder, or about \$18,000. The permit should not, therefore, issue for more than three-eighths of 2,800 H. P. or 1,500 H. P. The fact that it may generate 8,000 H. P. by the expenditure of \$150,000 I do not regard as important, and I carry out the purpose of Congress in taking away any motive for making such an investment. The amount of 1,500 H. P. will be reserved to await the decision of the Dominion government in the controversy between the International Railway Company and the Commissioners of Queen Victoria Park. This leaves out of the 160,000 H. P. 153,500 H. P. to be distributed to the other three companies. Let us consider their financial status and prospects.

The Ontario Power Company was incorporated in 1887, and there was no limitation in its charter upon the amount

of power which it might generate. Its plans, however, were subject to the approval of the Commissioners of Queen Victoria Park, and plans for its works have been approved for 180,000 H. P. The head works for this amount have been constructed and located above the first line of rapids. It was necessary under the plans to construct three conduits through the park. Only one of these conduits has been constructed, and it has a capacity to supply six generating units, three for 10,000 H. P. each and three of 12,000 each, or 68,000 H. P. in all. The cost to complete the six units and thus produce 56,000 is \$6,500,000. The amount required to complete the plant to the projected size, producing 180,000 H. P. would be \$5,500,000 additional; and the amount required to produce 120,000 H. P. would be about \$3,200,000. In addition to this, the Ontario Transmission Company, an auxiliary company to the main power company, has expended about \$1,000,000 in transmission, right of way and plant, and the power company has entered into contracts for the furnishing 5,000 H. P. with an option by the purchasers to increase this to 13,000 for Canadian consumption. The Niagara, Lockport & Ontario Company of New York is affiliated with the Ontario Power Company, and it has constructed a very elaborate transmission plant from the international boundary to Lockport, from Lockport to Buffalo, and from Lockport by way of Rochester to Syracuse. It has expended \$2,785,000 of which \$1,200,000 was for right of way and \$1,062,000 for construction. Its capacity for transmission from the International Boundary to Lockport is 60,000 H. P., and there is the same capacity from Lockport to Buffalo; from Lockport to Syracuse it has a capacity of 10,000 H. P., and a second line of greater capacity is under construction. It claims that its investment will amount, when its transmission lines are completed, to upwards of \$4,000,000 and certainly the expenditure will reach \$3,000,000.

The Electrical Development Company received a charter 5 Edward VII, and was authorized to take 125,000 H. P. or 8,000 cubic feet a second. The head works, wheel

pit and tail race have been completed for 11 units of 12,500 H. P. each. The power house has been completed for seven units, but the machinery installed and constructed for is only four units. The completion of the four units will involve the expenditure of \$6,300,000 and it may be increased to 11 units, or 123,000 H. P. by the expenditure of \$1,576,000. This company has erected a transmission plant to Toronto which will convey 20,000 H. P. and that will involve an expenditure when completed of \$2,610,000. The demands for Canadian consumption which this company will satisfy, are about 30,000 H. P. There is an electrical transmission company of American origin and charter affiliated with the company, which has expended about \$246,000 and has a relation to what is called the Nicholl syndicate, which owns interests in gas and power companies and in an electric railway company from Buffalo to Rochester, which is under construction. It has franchises in its own name in seven towns and cities, but the enterprise is largely inchoate and the investment is in prospect rather than actual.

The Canadian Niagara Power Company was organized in 1892 by the same persons who were interested in the Niagara Falls Power Company, the pioneer of electrical power companies on the American side. It is not limited in the quantity of power which it is to use and its plans are subject to the approval of the Commissioners of the Queen's Park. Plans have been approved for 120,000 H. P. which means 11 units of 11,000 H. P., with one of these as a "spare" which makes its normal capacity 110,000. Its head works, wheel pits and tail race tunnel are completed for the full development. Five units have already been installed and its power house and transformer have been completed for five units. It has cost \$5,550,000, and to make 11 units would cost \$1,200,000 more. It has an underground conduit connecting the Canadian plant with the American plant of the Niagara Falls Power Company, with a capacity of 128,000 H. P. transmission, with cables in it of the capacity of 32,000. It has a separate transmis-

sion line fifteen miles along the Niagara River to Fort Erie with towers to carry the lines across the river, all of which transmission plant cost \$436,000. It sells in Canada 1,340 H. P. with option to purchasers to take 4,337 H. P.

From what has been said it will be seen that the Ontario Power Company has now invested or under contract \$6,500,000, which will produce 56,000 H. P.; that it and its affiliated companies have expended \$1,000,000 for transmission in Canada and about \$3,009,000 for transmission in the United States.

That the Electrical Development Company has invested \$6,300,000, which will produce 50,000 H. P.; and a transmission line in Canada of \$2,500,000 and perhaps \$300,000 in transmission line in the United States.

That the Canadian Niagara Power Company has invested \$5,350,000 which will produce 55,000 H. P.; and \$500,000 in transmission lines in the United States.

Captain Kutz recommended the allowance to the Ontario Power Company of a permit for 60,000 H. P.; to the Canadian Niagara Falls Power Company the same amount, 60,000 H. P.; to the Electrical Development Co. 37,500.

I think the Ontario Company is entitled to a larger allowance than the other two companies, because it generates 11,000 H. P. more than the Niagara Falls Company, and 16,000 H. P. more than the Electrical Development Company. It has invested \$200,000 more in its power plant than the Electrical Development Company and \$1,000,000 more than the Canadian Niagara Falls Company. It uses for the production of one unit of horsepower perhaps 15 per cent. less of water than the other two companies. But more than all, it has expended \$3,000,000 in a transmission line from the International Boundary to Rochester, Syracuse, Lockport and Buffalo. This investment is almost wholly dependent for use and profit on the importation of electricity from Canada. Captain Kutz reports that 60,000 H. P. will enable the company to secure a reasonable return on the transmission investment after paying proper amount for the power at the boundary. This would leave

to be divided between the other two companies 99,000 H. P. and objection is made to this discrimination against them in favor of the Ontario Power Company because their plants are so arranged that by the expenditure of a million and a quarter the Niagara Company could increase its output to 110,000 H. P. and by the expenditure of a million and a half the Development Company could increase its output to 130,000, whereas the Ontario Company must expend \$6,500,000 more to reach its full capacity of 180,000 H. P., or about \$3,200,000 to reach a capacity of 130,000 H. P. While this circumstance is entitled to some weight against proportioning the allowance to the capital actually expended on the power plants or the horsepower now produced from the present installations, still I think the considerations already suggested, especially the special expenditure for long distance transmission really outweighs everything else in requiring that if possible a sufficient amount be allowed to pay a reasonable profit on that investment which is wholly dependent on transmission.

Coming now to the division between the Niagara Falls Company and the Development Company, the conclusion is not so easy. The Development Company has invested about three-quarters of a million more on its power plant than the Niagara Company, but under its present installation it cannot produce as much horsepower by 5,000. It has expended \$2,500,000 to carry 20,000 horsepower to Toronto and has contracts for 10,000 more. The Canadian business does not pay as well as the American business, especially that of the Niagara Company, which is quite profitable under its existing contracts. Considering these contracts it seems to me that with its slight cost of transmission and the advantageous situation that it enjoys in respect to its affiliated American Company, an allowance of 52,500 H. P. for the Niagara Company will enable it to fulfill all its probable demands at a good profit. The works across the river produce 76,300 H. P., and adding 52,500 H. P. makes 128,800 H. P. The American Company now earns 9 per cent. on its stock of \$4,000,000 and

interest on a bonded indebtedness \$9,000,000. It has contracts requiring a maximum of 102,000 H. P. but the call on its capacity has never exceeded 25,000 H. P. because the calls do not coincide. On the capital invested, there is no likelihood that the Niagara Company will suffer a loss. It will not make as much as it would have made had it been allowed to transmit its full capacity after building the contemplated additions to its installation but the act only intended to save investors from losses on the plant actually invested, not to compensate them for prospective gain.

This leaves for the Electrical Development Company 46,500 H. P. to transmit to the United States after producing 30,000 H. P. and transmitting it to Toronto and elsewhere. This would justify the company in increasing the number of units in its installation if it could secure transmission to the United States. It is probable that the amount is not enough to justify the elaborate outlay required for transmission to American consumers, and this reduces the value of the permit; but I cannot think that it will not be able to arrange for the disposition of transmissible current at the boundary at such figures as to be profitable, even if the amount it makes per horsepower be less than that which the American companies realize, because of their greater facility for reaching customers, the one through the Rochester transmission plant and the other through the American Niagara Company's plant and good will. Under this arrangement and allotment the Canadian Company becomes the only one which, assuming a demand for its American delivery, will be justified in increasing the capacity of its power plant by installing more units. The demand in Canada for the product of the Ontario and Niagara companies may grow some but not very much, so that they are likely to be confined to present installation.

Before closing I ought to notice a claim of the Niagara Company that it has by its charter a preferential right over the other two companies, so that it ought to be allowed its full 110,000 H. P. for transmission before the other two companies receive permits to transmit any cur-

rent at all. The preference claimed is really only a priority in taking water from the river, and cannot be reasonably extended to apply to rights to transmit current when there is no lack of water for all.

The Niagara Falls Power Company and its Canadian other self ask that the two permits to them shall contain a provision by which in case of a reduction of the amount of water diverted on the American side below the permitted limit, a corresponding increase beyond the limit permitted on the Canadian side may be authorized. This privilege must be denied. The American diversion and the Canadian transmission must be kept separate in the permits and should be absolute and not variable. It would form an uncomfortable precedent in other cases.

It has been asserted by persons who profess to have information that the three companies here seeking permits are looking forward to an amalgamation of interests or a combination for the purpose of keeping up the prices of electrical power by avoiding competition that will deny to the public the benefit it is entitled to enjoy from the natural water power that these companies use at comparatively small benefit to any one of the governments which authorize its use. This is denied by the applicants. Just what effect the existence of such a combination ought to have to require a revocation or modification of these permits is a matter of grave doubt, but should evidence in proper form of the existence of such a combination be brought to me as a ground for the modification of the action now taken, it will be given careful consideration.

The order for permits will, therefore, be for

The International Railway Company.....	1,500
The Ontario Power Company.....	60,000
The Canadian Niagara Falls Power Company.....	52,500
The Electrical Development Company.....	46,000

The Chief of Engineers and Captain Kutz will prepare the permits after consultation with counsel for the respective companies. An order should also be entered detailing Captain Kutz to report a plan for the supervision of the operation of these companies under the permits, with a view to secure strict compliance with their terms.



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NEXT YEAR.

Doubtless the most procrastinating of individuals whose work constantly drives him, dreams of some day overcoming the demon who sits in the saddle, though just how or when does not quite appear. If it is true that a great man gathers power in action in contrast to the less successful man who expends it, the reason is possibly to be found in the great man's complete command of his resources. He is forehanded. He knows what he hopes to accomplish and he is ready at the right time to develop the campaign and watch results with keen delight.

There are many Chautauqua circles which are really eager to make the new year's work an opportunity for serious study. They have libraries and they would like to use them. But often a circle neglects to look ahead until the year is actually open, and then the pleasure of making leisurely investigations is lost because of hurried efforts to catch up. A few words of suggestion therefore may be timely:

1. Let your program committee provide itself with several sets of books early, in August, if possible.
2. Secure from the C. L. S. C. office a copy of the "Topical Outline" for the year if such has not reached you.

3. Look over the bibliography in Mr. Commons' book and see what books are available in your library. The government publications contain much material of very great interest and your librarian can easily secure these.

4. Look over your own community and see at how many points the immigrant question touches it. What nationalities have you? Where do they live? What are their occupations? You will find settlement and church workers who know the different localities and can guide your investigations. Then be ready when the circle opens to assign to each of several members who may volunteer, some part of the field upon which to make a report. Other interesting and closely related questions are these: Are there any native art industries in your town carried on by foreigners? How has household service been affected by the immigrant situation? etc.

For the first two months of the year we shall study the immigrant of today; then we take up the story of American literature to see how both the earlier and later stock have found literary expression for their ideals. After this with the help of Miss Addams' clear insight we shall see how the great changes in our national life are to be interpreted. If the Circle's program committee gives a little preliminary investigation to local conditions the Circle will find the profit and enjoyment of its year's work increased ten fold.

"AS OTHERS SEE US."

Probably most of us have suffered from the depressing experience of coming upon ourselves quite unexpectedly as portrayed in some unfriendly mirror which tended to enhance our less pleasing characteristics. In our daily consultations with our own mirror we had been in a subjective state, unconsciously adding to the image there reflected, some interpretation of its graces colored by our feelings and aspirations—and we had found the image by no means unlovely. But this harsher experience was distinctively objective. It was as if we were some one else looking critically at that particular human being which must from the nature

of things possess the most absorbing interest for us. It is quite probable that after the revelations made by the unfriendly mirror we tried in some fashion to improve upon the result. We discarded some garments—manifestly more shabby than we had supposed. We found it desirable to hold ourselves more erect. We had resented the picture. Nevertheless it made an impression.

In an "American Year" of study, one can hardly imagine a more interesting and profitable experience than to see our national traits objectively—as the Englishman, the Frenchman, the German has seen them. It was an American who once said, "I gain nothing by being with others such as myself, we only encourage one another in mediocrity." This was putting the provincial point of view in a nutshell—encouraging one another in mediocrity. The genuinely educated man must be a citizen of the world though he never moves far from his own hearthstone, and to see our country and ourselves through the eyes of critics whether competent or prejudiced is a wholesome experience. Every CHAUTAUQUA reader as he takes up Mr. John Graham Brooks' fascinating series of studies entitled "As Others See Us," beginning in the September CHAUTAUQUAN, will be surprised at the amount and variety of foreign criticism which has been bestowed upon America. In Mr. Brooks' skilful handling this study will be an "educative" experience.

"WHO IS THE AMERICAN?"

One cannot read a Danish immigrant's story of his life, as published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for July, 1906, without realizing the tragedies which take place all about us among our newly arrived European neighbors, nor how on the other hand, help at the right time may turn the scales decisively. As the Dane put it, describing his experience on an Illinois farm:

"An angel walked across the road to me one day while I was hoeing in the cornfield, an angel with a freckled face, wearing a dilapidated straw hat, and bare footed, with one pant leg rolled up higher than the other. That was the neighbor's boy. He began to talk to me about my country and about our old King and his

family and we managed to understand each other quite well. He was different from the big boys down at our house. When I tried to say anything and couldn't find the proper words to express it, he could nearly always guess what I was trying to say; then he would help me out, and without laughing at me."

We are coming to appreciate more and more that the immigrant question is the big one in America today underlying all our modern problems of industry, race assimilation, politics, crime, etc. In what better way then can Chautauquans study the history of the United States in this coming American Year than from the race point of view.

This opportunity is made possible by the special publication for the C. L. S. C. by Mr. John R. Commons of a compact little book entitled "Races and Immigrants in America," of which a competent critic says: "We do not recall another book of its size that presents so much important and essential information on this vital topic." This will be the first C. L. S. C. book for the year, and while under Mr. Brooks' leadership we are discovering ourselves as the European critics have seen us, we shall be discovering also that the kaleidoscope of immigration has so marvellously changed the picture in the last quarter of a century that a new nation seems to be molding itself under our very eyes.

"NEWER IDEALS OF PEACE."

Very fortunate has Chautauqua been in securing for this American Year a book of remarkable ethical insight and power—Miss Jane Addams' "Newer Ideals of Peace." The impression which this little volume has made upon more than one critic and student of American life has been profound. The editor of *Collier's Weekly* published a remarkable editorial upon it:

"We have been slowly digesting (now several weeks) Jane Addams's latest volume. It is a book of which it takes many days to appreciate even fragmentarily a single chapter, so packed is each with new and reconstructive thought. To us it seems the most comprehending talk yet given about how to help humanity in America today. As these words are written, Mr. Harriman's activities are being discussed fully in the newspapers of the land, and, according to the laws of journalism, should be the basis for the most con-

spicuous editorial position at our command. Let them wait. There are conditions more important—conditions which we would fain do much to meet, had we the information, the insight, the accurate heart of the woman whose 'Newer Ideals of Peace' is the inspiration of this note. At present we are but advertising this volume to our readers. In weeks and years to come traces of it will be scattered in our pages, as vital gems affecting the conduct of this sheet."

The trilogy of studies of America today—Mr. Brooks' "As Others See Us," Mr. Commons' "Races and Immigrants in America," and Miss Adams' "Newer Ideals of Peace" will surely make this a fruitful and inspiring year for every Chautauqua reader.



But we cannot interpret our civilization wholly through the insight of the sociologist. We must listen for its message as the poets have sung it to us, and with the novelist and story writer must see the charm and beauty of daily life as they are revealed to the sympathetic and imaginative observer. Miss Katharine Lee Bates in her "American Literature" will point out in inimitable fashion the close connection between letters and life in America's development, and Mr. Horace Spencer Fiske in his "Provincial Types in American Fiction" will show how old and varied is the race question in this land and how it has contributed a peculiar richness and variety to our literature.

STUDIES IN AMERICAN PAINTING.

In art it is a long way from provincial America borrowing its ideals from the old world, to the twentieth century school of American artists whose mural paintings point to a distinctly new and native development. Mr. Carnegie's widely scattered libraries mean an increase of picture galleries, and loan exhibitions are to become more and more available for people who are remote from the great art centers. Schools and civic clubs are beginning to realize how they may beautify public buildings with works of art and the time is coming when the artist not less than the soldier will be a popular hero. To trace the growth of this

significant movement in America and see how it has been stimulated or retarded by social conditions will be a delightful experience for Chautauqua readers. Miss Edwina Spencer who so skilfully handled the subject of American sculpture in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* four years ago, will discuss "American Painting" in a series of articles beginning with the September number. Abundant illustrations will make it possible for the reader to appreciate in some degree the nature of the development of painting in America.



NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

A number of new books with bindings of more or less individual character, attracted the attention of the members whose seals were hard by the Round Table. "What an odd title—'Alice-for-Short,'" commented a Minnesota reader as she stumbled slightly over the hyphenated words. Pendragon held up the book in question and with it a companion volume bound in dark blue cloth. "You remember," he said, "that we were to discuss some of the new books at this meeting. We may as well start with 'Joseph Vance' and 'Alice-for-Short,' for they seem to have captured even the most cautious of reviewers, one of whom hesitates to discuss the literary quality of 'Joseph Vance' because 'it is impossible to speak without a degree of enthusiasm which might invite suspicion of incoherence.' As you will note, these two books (Henry Holt & Co., \$1.75 each,) are by Mr. William De Morgan, an Englishman who is credited by competent critics with belonging to the school of Thackeray and Dickens 'the important fact is that he belongs to it and does not merely hang upon its heels.' As another reviewer puts it, 'When Joseph Vance swam into the ken of novel readers a few months ago there were many of us who felt that we could realize for the first time in our experience what it was to have lived in the days of "Pickwick" and "Pendennis."' So you see how the author has for the time being at least hypnotized his critics. But when you take up these charming volumes you will need no critic to tell you that they are worth while. In each book the unfolding of the personality of a child is the central motive of the plot and the art of the writer makes the setting of the story so real and so infinitely picturesque that the characters live and move beyond you with an indescribable charm.

"Then you will notice here also Mr. Howell's latest book, 'Through the Eye of the Needle,' in which his Altruria once more emerges. 'Not,' as some one has said, 'a thesis on future economics of the world at large, but a kindly satire, a sort of twentieth century parable.'"

"I notice you've a copy of 'The Saint,' by Fogazzaro," said a New Yorker as he scanned the books on the table. "I should like to mention that I read the book at Christmas time and found it profoundly interesting." "This note from Professor Richard Burton," said Pendragon, "quite bears out your impression. He suggests among important books of the year the entire trilogy of Fogazzaro—'The Patriot,' 'The Sinner,' 'The Saint.' They are all published by the Putnams, the second one of the series, 'The Saint' being the last to appear. These three novels really give one a remarkable view of contemporary Italy. The reader seems to get behind the scenes and discover the manifold aspects of a very complex situation. Italy seems forever seething with forces scarcely as yet under control."

"Many of you are undoubtedly interested in the modern drama and will appreciate another suggestion of Professor Burton's, namely, that you look into a new book entitled 'Sappho and Phaon,' by Percy Mackaye, a recent graduate of Harvard and a young man of much literary promise. We have already discussed at the May Round Table, as you will remember, Benson's 'From a College Window,' published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, and if you haven't read his inimitable chapter On Growing Older, by all means do so. 'The House of Quiet' and 'Beside Still Waters' indicate that this genial writer is wielding a strenuous pen though the atmosphere of his books is suggestive only of cloistered calm."



"Some of you have already schemes of reading which you are working out this summer, and I have purposely refrained from turning your attention to a long list of new books. The few which we have mentioned you certainly won't regret having read it.

"Now as this is our last meeting for the year, reports of closing exercises will be quite in order and we will give the delegate from Mt. Sterling, Kentucky, the first place."

"Our Circle," responded the president, Mrs. Griggs, "is composed of very busy women yet we find time for an astonishing amount of study outside of the regular lesson. We used THE CHAUTAUQUAN only in the Circle meetings and made our own programs.

"Our 'Oxford Day' program was one of our best, embracing a paper on the History of Oxford, and papers on Oxford's famous literary men, churchmen, military men, statesmen, and Cecil Rhodes and his scholarships.

"Our two afternoons with Shakespeare were both pleasant and instructive. Each member chose a play and came prepared to give in her own words the plot, the leading characters, and the most thrilling scenes, together with quotations from the play.

"Our Shakespeare play is now being rehearsed and we expect to produce it at an early date. We shall continue our meetings through the summer and instead of a regular program the Circle is divided into groups of four and those on duty for the day present anything bearing on our study that they deem interesting to the Circle. This gives scope for much originality and we have book reviews, original poems, sketches of writers, readings from various authors, and map studies. We expect to produce 'Cranford' later in the summer and with the funds obtained will buy a good American Encyclopedia to present to our public library. These busy mothers and housewives say the mental uplift is just what they have needed for years. We hope to send a few graduates through the 'Golden Gate' in 1910. We are receiving new members at every meeting and hope to have the largest Circle on record for our little town for next year's work."

The delegate from Beatrice, Nebraska, was the next to report. "I represent," she said, "the S. H. G. of our town and we have just held a really notable reunion. This little handpainted souvenir you will notice suggests the beautiful wild roses of our western prairies. This was our seventh annual banquet, and we had as our guests all Chautauqua graduates in the city, whether they had ever read or been connected with our circle or had lived elsewhere when reading. You can realize how broad our interests are when I tell you that we had letters of greeting from former members now scattered through many states and Canada. The program developed so much enthusiasm that the 'Prophecy,' which was one of its features, looked forward to an Alumni Association of graduates from this part of the state, and we have already taken steps to bring about such an arrangement."



"We are just a year behind you in banquets," remarked the next speaker from Warren, Ohio. "This is our sixth and I must admit also that we are not an S. H. G., but perhaps I may say with all modesty, a very promising undergraduate Circle—the Robert Browning. As compliment to the graduating class you will notice that we had the flower of 1907 painted upon our program with the C. L. S. C. mottoes printed in Old English as a suggestion of the English year. Seventy guests were present and without reflecting upon former banquets I think I can properly say that the speeches of the evening were rather unusual. Mrs. Bartholomew, our president, in introducing the toastmaster, made Chautauqua seem—what it is—something worth living for, and Mr. Estabrook, who presided, seemed to have the Depew quality of putting everybody in the right humor so that the addresses whether grave or witty made the happiest sort of an impression. We have

had such a splendid year of work that it was pleasant to look back over it in this way and realize what the Circle is really signifying in our lives and what it means for our community. At our last regular meeting we each gave answers to three questions, 'What part of the year's work did you like best?' 'What roll call?' 'What suggestion have you for the betterment of the Circle's work?' This census of circle opinion will help us in planning for next year."

"I notice," said Pendragon, as he glanced over some clippings, "that the Stoddard C. L. S. C. of Jamestown, New York, planned for a closing banquet at the Peacock Inn at Mayville early in June. The report of this festivity hasn't reached us but perhaps our imagination can supply the picture. Mayville, as many of you know, is at the head of Chautauqua Lake and from its hill top you can see Chautauqua itself with the bell tower looking out over the lake as if it were thinking of the circles and readers who often listen for the tones of the bell. The Stoddard Circle is five years old and has now eleven graduates who are planning to form the Excelsior postgraduate C. L. S. C. in the autumn, while the old Circle will continue with twelve members. They have all been enthusiastic over the English year. I suspect they will find the new American course quite as enthralling. There is another Circle in Jamestown to which I must allude here, the 'Plus Ultra,' a graduate Circle which has been giving exclusive attention to the Reading Journey Through England."



"There is a new Circle in Atlanta, Georgia," continued Pendragon, "which you will be particularly glad to welcome today. They are young and hopeful. The secretary, Miss Wesley, will tell us of their year's work."

"We are not a very imposing Circle," said the delegate as she glanced a little timidly at her appreciative audience. "We organized last September with six members and meet consecutively at each other's homes. We go direct from school and after a luncheon do the club work. The luncheon is very simple, but it saves us the trouble and time of going home for lunch and gives us a chance for a social chat. Teachers and working girls will find this a pleasant method of meeting. We have found freedom in criticism a very helpful feature of our cozy gatherings and we are all so eager to improve that no one thinks of taking offense. While we were studying Tennyson we taught his poems in school and so made a direct application of our reading. We enjoyed each book immensely and did a great deal in the way of apt quotations from them all. Then we had the very great good fortune of seeing five of Shakespeare's plays performed by excellent companies—Mer-

chant of Venice, Julius Cæsar, Cymbeline, Midsummer Night's Dream, and Merry Wives of Windsor. We all believe in Chautauqua and especially in the class of 1910!"

As the Round Table expressed its approval of the spirit of 1910, Pendragon introduced another member of the same class, Mr. LePage of Stamford, Connecticut. "This Circle," he remarked, "is a close connection of the famous 'Outlook' of Mt. Vernon, New York. It bids fair to make a name for itself in Stamford."

"Of course we hardly dare to measure ourselves by the standards of older Circles just yet," laughed the president, "but we started with a Circle of twelve members and the interest has grown so fast that at our last meeting we had over twenty-four. The Connecticut Assembly is not very far from us and doubtless some of our members will improve the chance to enlarge our Chautauqua experiences. You may expect to hear from us many times between now and 1910!"

"May I report our new S. H. G., for we feel rather proud of it?" The speaker thus introduced told of the work of the Circle at Assumption, Illinois,—A Circle already known to Chautauquans for its successful efforts in behalf of a public library. "We formed our S. H. G. in November, 1906," she continued, "and through its influence a large C. L. S. C. class was organized for 1910. We held a reception for the new members and they have started out so well that we do not feel any solicitude about their future." "With such a record," commented Pendragon, "we shall expect to see this S. H. G. speedily devoting itself to the Class of 1911. One report from Winfield, Kansas, and we must close."

"Ours is a Chautauqua town," said the delegate, Mrs. Wilson, "and cyclones and floods cannot quench our Chautauqua spirit as we had occasion to show a few years ago. Our Assembly is in its twenty-first year and the yearly sessions are looked forward to by all out citizens. We have three circles in the city, and one a little distance out. There are thirty-nine active members in the three city circles—nine of our College Hill Circle graduated last year but none felt that they could stop so all are enrolled for this year. We have enjoyed all the books greatly. 'Rational Living' required hard thinking and took deep hold of many of us. We usually follow the suggestive programs in some degree, deviating to suit our convenience and occasionally an outsider is asked to lecture on the topic of the evening. We have an annual meeting of all the circles who take turns in entertaining. Our circle always has a tent at the Assembly, furnished by the readers, two of the members serving each day as hostess and on the last day of the session we close with a banquet of C. L. S. C. members."

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the Light of Foreign Criticism
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From President Angell of the
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THE MAGAZINE OF SYSTEM IN READING

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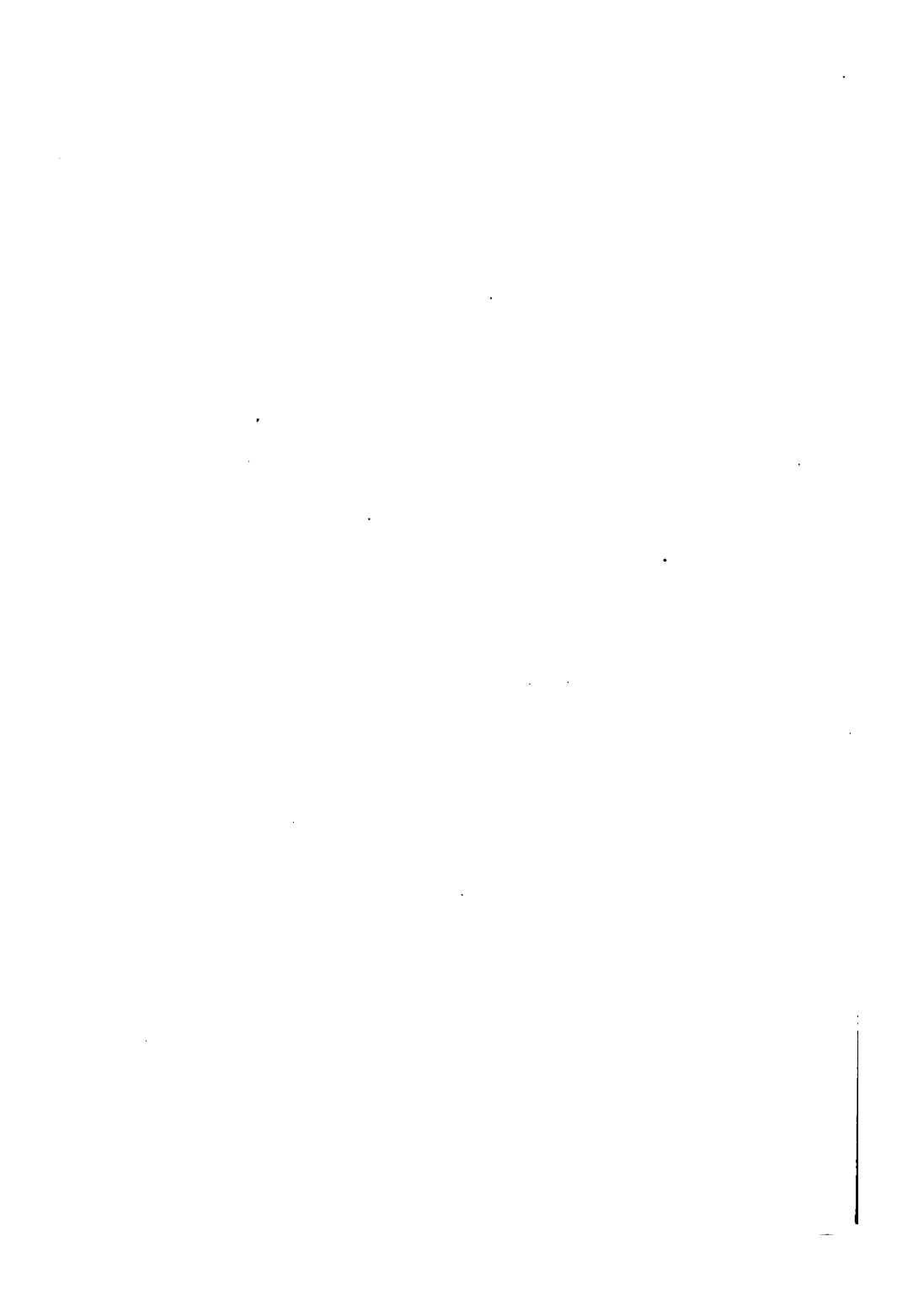
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ASA GRAY.

(See "Asa Gray," by Professor Charles Reid Barnes, page 89.)

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IN financial and railroad circles the sentiment is general and deep that the prosperity of the country is gravely menaced by the wave of restrictive legislation and agitation against evils in corporate and public-utility policies. A pause in our commercial expansion is regarded as inevitable and even beneficial, for there are experts who believe that the demand for capital is in excess of the supply, that this is lowering the prices of even the soundest securities, and that a readjustment has become necessary. But the healthy recession may, it is said, easily turn into a panic if certain tendencies in public life are not checked promptly.

The complaints are directed not so much against the national government, and against its efforts to suppress illegal combinations whose methods are injurious to the public and to legitimate business, to prevent inflation and stock gambling, and to eliminate discrimination and favoritism, as against state measures, particularly the so-called 2-cent fare statutes. Several states, including Pennsylvania, Illinois, Wisconsin, Iowa, have passed acts reducing passenger rates of fare to 2 cents a mile, and most of these acts have gone into effect. The railroads claim that the 2-cent rate is unreasonably low and confiscatory of their rightful earnings or profits, at least in states where the population is not as congested as in New England. They have appealed to the courts, state and federal, to restrain the enforcement of these acts, but so far with little success. In Missouri a federal court ordered an experimental enforcement of the 2-cent fare act for 90 days, to provide a basis of fact for a

decision on the validity of the reduction. In other states the railroads themselves have obeyed the acts in order to obtain facts and figures for subsequent use in the courts. In some cases injunctions have been granted, but the railroads were required to give bonds of indemnity for the difference between the old and the new rates, so that in the event of a decision adverse to them the passenger should not suffer injustice.

The principles applicable to these cases are clear. The railroads—and other corporations, as well—are entitled to fair treatment, to proper returns on their actual capital, to security and protection. If the 2-cent fare acts are confiscatory in any state, or in all states, the courts will set them aside. But the presumption is always in favor of the constitutionality of acts of legislative bodies, and the burden of proof is on the complainants. What many railroad men fear is that judges will lean toward the public and demand of them evidence of too direct and conclusive a character. What they fear even more is the moral effect of anti-railroad agitation on the investing public.

Meantime the national movement for honesty and responsibility in corporation management, for remedies for such abuses as were disclosed by the "Harriman report" of the commerce commission, shows no signs of decline. Indeed, new proposals and suggestions looking toward government control and more effectual regulation are constantly brought forward. Limited government purchase of railroad stock has been favored by some, while others would have directors representing the government and the public on all railroads and corporation boards. The object of such schemes is to secure real publicity and give the people a voice in the management of the corporations which the law creates and clothes with powers and privileges of great value.

Whatever may result from this renewed discussion of the problem of "peopleizing corporations," it is certain that

the next presidential campaign will be largely fought on this issue, and that the would-be candidates will be obliged to take definite, clear positions thereon.



Japan, Korea, and the United States

The complications between Japan and this country were largely imaginary, and the excited talk of war or preparations for war was chiefly of sensational jingo origin. The alleged crisis came to a very tame end when it was announced from Tokio that there was no "situation" between the two governments, and that Japan could not and would not raise the least objection to any projected cruise of the American naval fleet, or any part thereof, to the Pacific coast, since the United States was as much at home on the Pacific as on the Atlantic, and had substantial interests to guard on both coasts. As a matter of fact, the proposed cruise has not been finally decided on and may not take place at all. But even if it should or even if the fleet should be actually transferred to the Pacific, such action could only be held to indicate that at this time we had greater problems in the Pacific than in the Atlantic, which is precisely the fact. Why should Japan regard it as a menace—any more than the fleet in the Atlantic was regarded by Germany, England, and France as a menace?

But, while common sense prevailed, and the paper "war" between Japan and the United States has ended without serious consequences, it would be short-sighted not to recognize that there are vital questions outstanding between the two countries, questions that will require self-restraint, patience, sobriety, and tact on the part of both. These questions are immigration, naturalization, and treatment of Japanese in this country. Japan will not go to war over any minor insult, especially with this country; but neither will she submit to flagrant injustice and discrimination. So when the time comes to negotiate a new treaty covering the subjects just mentioned, it will be necessary

for us to consider Japanese honor as well as interest and to propose fair terms. That she will be reasonable, not pugnacious and aggressive, may be taken for granted.

Meantime Japan has a crisis of another and real kind to deal with—the Korean question again. The Portsmouth peace treaty and the subsequent conventions between Japan and Korea were supposed to have settled that question. In truth, they left ample room for discord, conflict, and intrigue. For Korea was not expressly declared a dependency of Japan or even a protectorate. Russia had recognized Japan's paramount interests and predominant position in that kingdom, which meant that so far as St. Petersburg was concerned Japan would have a free hand in Korea. China, too, bowed to the inevitable, while the Western powers knew that practically the peninsula was a Japanese possession. But Korea herself had to be wooed and placated, and nothing was done to openly wound her pride. She "agreed" to accept the advice of Japan in fiscal and administrative matters, to introduce reforms and to consult Japan with regard to all diplomatic and foreign affairs. That *meant* a protectorate, as the whole world understood and said, but outwardly the Seoul government was not disturbed. The emperor ostensibly remained "independent," and Korea was still an important political entity. Japan sent a Resident General to Seoul, and various reforms began to be introduced. There was much complaint among the natives, who cordially hate the Japanese, of alleged aggression by the latter and grabbing of opportunities and resources, and some mistakes no doubt were made by the representatives of the Mikado. Marquis Ito was then made Resident General and improved relations were expected. Court intrigues, however, continued, and they reached a climax in the mysterious appearance of a Korean delegation at The Hague asking to be admitted to the peace conference. The Korean emperor was accused of having sent or authorized this delegation, in violation of the agreement with Japan. The delegation was refused all recog-

nition, but that did not end the incident. Japan was greatly offended, and had a right to an explanation and apology from the Korean crown. But the emperor inconclusively denied knowledge of the mission and the situation became painful. The Korean cabinet and the "elder statesmen" then suggested abdication as the only course for the emperor, a course sanctioned by tradition and ancestral custom. The emperor resisted the suggestion for a time, but finally yielded and surrendered the throne to the crown prince. Disturbances and collisions between natives and Japanese followed, and there was some talk of justifiable "interference" in behalf of Korea under old treaties—treaties that have lost their meaning since the Portsmouth settlement. Of course, Japan acted as she might have been expected to act, and the "passing of Korea" as an independent state is scarcely a surprise to the world. New treaties are to be negotiated, further accentuating Japan's control and further limiting the power of the Seoul government. The situation is not free from danger, but its outcome is beyond doubt.



The Demand for Individual Responsibility

In connection with the various prosecutions of corporate and trust law-breakers, several eminent men in public life have raised the cry of "individual responsibility." It is strongly felt that practically nothing has been and nothing can be accomplished by trying corporations for conspiracy or rebate-paying or any other offense against public policy and imposing fines upon them in the event of conviction. In the first place, the corporation pays the fine out of the profits, or at the expense of the stockholders, if not also of the the public, and no individual officer or director is affected by it. In the second place, a fine, even when heavy, carries no stigma, and the people forget all about it, while the corporation goes on with its practices and cheerfully assumes the risk of other fines in the distant future.

No good is to be expected from such a policy, we are told. What is the alternative? President Woodrow Wilson of Princeton answers this question in a recent address as follows:

One really responsible man in jail, one real originator of the schemes and transactions which are contrary to the public interest legally lodged in the penitentiary would be worth more than a thousand corporations mulcted in fines, if the reform is to be genuine and permanent. . . . Every corporation is personally directed either by some one dominant man or by some group of persons. Somebody in particular is responsible for ordering or sanctioning every illegal act committed by its agents or officers; but neither our law of personal damage nor our criminal law has sought to seek out the responsible persons and hold them accountable for the acts complained of. We have never attempted such statutes. We indict corporations themselves, find them guilty of illegal practices, fine them, and leave the individuals who devise and execute the illegal acts free to discover new evasions.

This utterance has been echoed and re-echoed in every part of the land. There has been a little, but only a little, doubting and critical comment. The individual must be prosecuted and punished, most of the editors have said, and the sooner some wealthy offender is put behind prison bars, the better it will be for the national welfare. But will juries as readily convict individuals as they do corporations? Will public sentiment, as reflected in the grand jury rooms and in the courts, approve of prison sentences under the anti-trust and anti-rebate laws? The *New York Times* ventures to think that considerable difficulty would be encountered here. It gives its reasons thus:

Corporations are bad not because they are corporations, but because there is no unanimity of public opinion about the quality of the acts. Wage-earners denounce trusts for extortion and practice the same form of combination and intimidation themselves. One trader denounces rebates only because they enrich another, and would take them himself. One railroad will give a rebate secretly, for a pernicious purpose, and another will give a rebate for a reason

in the public interest, and the public condemns both as acts of the same sort. Men and corporations alike contribute to campaign funds as a sort of investment, but they are equally guilty of corrupting politics.

President Wilson wisely condemned the attempt to create reform by statutes such as have been enacted and himself proposed another sort of statute designed to find the responsible individual and punish him. The case is not the same as with laws against murder or robbery. There is no division of opinion regarding them. The present case is that reputable individuals and corporations alike want laws to punish practices which they excuse or practice themselves. A higher grade of thought and citizenship is wanted and a better sense of fiduciary and representative responsibility.

The truth is, of course, that only those laws are enforceable against individuals, at least where life and liberty are concerned, which enjoy the honest support of the great majority of the people, which embody the moral sentiments and ideals of the time. It is therefore a vital and essential question to what extent the average American, especially the average man of affairs, really upholds general and impartial laws against trusts, restraint of trade, rebating in various forms, and other practices of which we have been trying to get rid by state and federal prosecutions and fines.



New Weapons Against Trusts

Whether or not any of our trust magnates will go to prison, there is reason to believe that the national administration admits the futility of the anti-trust campaigns of the past and the need of more effectual methods. A new weapon has been forged by the Department of Justice, and one which, if the courts hold it legitimate, cannot fail to bring about the desired results.

The new weapon is—the receivership. That is, in asking the courts to dissolve an illegal combination, the government, in addition to the usual prayer for an in-

junction and an order to the officers and directors requiring them to reorganize and redistribute the stock and assets, and so on, will ask for the appointment of a receiver to take over and manage the combination with a view to dissolution and the re-establishment of the original, independent, competing constituent corporations or firms.

In other words, whereas in the past the convicted trust has been relied on to carry out the mandate of the court and desist from wrongdoing, in the future the government will, in all proper cases, take this task upon itself and through a receiver wind up the affairs of the outlawed trust with due regard to all legitimate interests.

Whether the courts will grant such requests is a matter of some doubt. The lawyers representing the trusts will oppose the new weapon with all the skill and force which they may command. The Department lawyers are confident that the courts, under the trust law and the general principles of equity jurisprudence, have ample power to appoint receivers for the purposes specified. The success of the government in applying the new method or process would obviously involve momentous consequences.

The first case in which the use of this new weapon has been asked is that of the tobacco trust, a combination of nine companies, charged with monopolizing the tobacco trade, destroying competition by trickery, fraud, and coercion, entering into illegal agreements and violating the anti-trust law in various ways. The agitation against the tobacco trust has proceeded for years, and the government's suit against it has surprised no one.



Industrial Safety and Accident Insurance

The question of insuring workingmen and workingwomen against industrial accidents has been much discussed of late. It has been shown that wage-earners are subjected to unnecessary peril in the mills and factories, and that not only do our laws fail to protect labor by requiring machinery to be properly guarded, but that those who are fatally

or seriously injured seldom obtain proper compensation from the employers. The doctrine that employers are not liable for the negligence of a fellow-servant of a victim, and the doctrine of contributory negligence, coupled with far-fetched applications of the "free contract theory," combine to defeat simple justice to labor.

The tendency today is to modify or abrogate the old views and to insure "universal" accident compensation, irrespective of the cause of the injury or the amount of the workman's negligence. The President has strongly advocated "automatic liability" of employers in interstate commerce, on the ground that all society, not the victims of industrial risks, should bear the economic costs of accidents. Several of the more influential state executives have taken the same position and recommend effective measures to check "the industrial slaughter" that is disgracing our civilization. Reports have been made by special committees in favor of compulsory or voluntary pension and compensation systems to meet the recognized needs of labor.

Little, however, has as yet been accomplished, beyond the new federal employers' liability law limited to railroads, which is now before the Supreme Court, as its constitutionality has been challenged. Meantime earnest students of the question are interested in the new workman's compensation act which has recently gone into effect in Great Britain. It is very radical and sweeping, being an amendment of the already amended and strengthened accident compensation act of 1897, and claiming attention largely on account of the provisions regarding domestic service. As the act now stands, it applies to every worker, servant, laborer or other employee whose remuneration does not exceed \$1,250 a year. For all accidents to these, employers are liable. The compensation is on the basis of 50 per cent. of the average weekly earnings, except that in no case of incapacitation must it exceed \$5 a week. In the accidents resulting in death the compensation to dependents or relatives ranges between \$750 and \$1,500.

Employers have complained bitterly against this law as amended and extended, but the answer of its supporters is that consumers, not the employers, pay the compensation, and that it is but just that this should be so, since industry has its victims, its heroes, its vanquished, as war has.

In order to prevent hardships to individual employers the insurance companies of Great Britain have taken this industrial insurance off their hands, and for relatively small premiums issue indemnity policies to them. State insurance has been proposed, but a parliamentary committee has declared the suggestion premature. The private insurance committees are struggling with the new problems of industrial insurance and doing all that the obscure situation permits to be done.



The New Federalism and the States

At the meetings of the different state bar associations and at other gatherings the leading topic this summer has been "the new federalism," or the alleged movement to usurp the rights of the states and extend the powers of the federal government. Ex-Judge Alton B. Parker, ex-Attorney General Harmon, Judge George Gray, Senator Rayner of Maryland and others have protested vigorously against statements they quoted from addresses of President Roosevelt, Secretary Root, and other members of the administration to the effect that if the states shall neglect their duties toward the people, the federal government will of necessity take the neglected tasks upon itself, the people's approval being certain, and that if the power granted by the constitution shall be held insufficient, "constructions will be found" that will justify the exercise of additional power. Such utterances have been described as "threats" of executive encroachment and nullification.

It has been argued, however, in organs friendly to the Roosevelt policies that the alarmed anti-federalists have entirely misunderstood the position of those they criticize.

Not threats, but warnings, have been addressed to the states. The warnings simply take cognizance of history and human nature. It is a fact that whenever vital and widely felt needs have failed of satisfaction owing to legal and constitutional obstacles, "constructions have been found" that removed the obstacles. In other words, men change charters and documents and laws to bring them into harmony with the facts of life, and when the letter of a constitution stands in their way, a new meaning or spirit is read into it. Our federal constitution has been "regularly" amended only in four particulars since the first 10 amendments were added to the instrument as a condition of its going into effect at all, but "by construction" it has been amended in many more respects and directions. And the same is true of all constitutions.

Our situation, in the opinion of these reasoners, is this: We are wrestling with certain evils—stock gambling, corporate dishonesty, illegal restraint of trade, discrimination, impure food, child labor, chaotic marriage-and-divorce laws, etc.—which the states cannot or will not remedy. If some states pass effective acts and enforce them, others make a mockery of such acts. In the absence of uniformity and consistence and continuity of policy even the best-laid plans of states come to naught. The people have established our dual system of government in the belief that it would serve their purposes and safe-guard their rights more effectually than a single government. But they are more interested in the ends than in the means, in getting the protection than in preserving the agencies that were established a century and a quarter ago. Where the states fail them, they will turn and appeal to the federal government, which, of course, is as much theirs as the state governments are. For constitutions are made for men, not men for constitutions.

Furthermore, the argument continues, the anti-federalism cry would carry more weight if the people believed in its genuineness. But the fact is that the same interests that

loudly protested against federal interference one day, just as loudly invoke such interference the very next day—if their convenience requires it. When the states become too active in the fight on evils and abuses, federal power is appealed to, and we hear much glib talk about the desirability of uniformity and method in legislation and government. When the federal government wields a “big stick,” then the state-rights doctrine is assiduously cultivated, and we are solemnly told that our liberties are in peril and that “the man on horseback” is visible. In these circumstances the average man may be pardoned if he concludes that neither crusade is really honest, and that the part of sense and safety for him is to support any movement, any course which promises to redress his present wrongs, to protect his rights, to secure for him equality of opportunity and fair play. This is today, beyond all question, the attitude of the great majority of the people. They pay little attention to lawyers’ addresses and warnings and a great deal to the concrete, practical questions relating to their vital needs and concerns.



The Progress of Commission Government

We have discussed heretofore the “Galveston-Houston” plan of municipal administration and the acts passed by Iowa, Kansas, and South Dakota to enable their cities to try the same plan. We have referred to the democratic features of the Iowa enabling act, which provides for the referendum on a large scale and gives the citizens the power of “recalling”—that is, of dismissing faithless or inefficient officials.

Since our reference to the subject, Des Moines, a city of 75,000 inhabitants, has voted by an overwhelming majority, against strenuous political opposition, to adopt commission government. That is to say, she will concentrate all legislative and executive power in a body of five men who will compose “the government” of the city. There will be no council, no executive with a veto power, no division of

responsibility. Each commissioner will have charge of a department and be responsible for its personnel and its work. The commissioners, sitting together, will exercise quasi-legislative functions, subject, in all important matters, to popular approval.

It is remarkable with what hopefulness and praise the action of the people of Des Moines has been received by the press of the country. The general opinion seems to be not only small and second-class cities, but even the great municipalities of the country, will seek more and more in the plan of commission government the "way out" of the troubles of graft, corruption, spoils, politics, and general demoralization. The commission plan is simple and direct, and seems to many to promise improvement in all the directions where it is needed. It has, of course, dangers of its own, for corrupt or incompetent commissioners may be chosen easily. But the referendum and the recall are the expedients that are relied on by the democratic friends of the plan to prevent such abuse of power under commission government.



Opening of Fight on the Lords

What is regarded as the first shot in the British popular war against the hereditary upper house of parliament took the form of a "resolution" passed by the Commons. There are notable historic precedents for resolutions against the claims and assumed prerogatives of the Lords, though, of course, a mere resolution has no legal effect and in no wise changes the actual situation.

The resolution asserted the constitutional predominance of the House of Commons and declared that a measure could not be vetoed twice by the Lords, so that any bill that had passed the Commons twice, after full discussion and deliberation and consultation with the Lords, should become a law of the land.

In due time a bill will be introduced in parliament em-

bodying this principle. The plan of the Liberal government and party was fully explained during the debate upon the resolution, and it was endorsed by a decisive majority, although some radicals and labor members thought it inadequate and timid. The plan contemplates the following procedure for all legislation not of an emergency character:

Action by the Commons; submission to the Lords; in the event of rejection by them, re-introduction of the rejected bill, with or without amendments, in the Commons, after a conference with the Lords, and adoption of it by the former; submission to the upper house for a second time, and, in the event of another rejection, another conference; rapid action in the Commons, without discussion, upon the bill for the third time, another conference with the Lords, and the taking effect of the measure in any event after such a final attempt at an agreement. In the case of the emergency legislation only two conferences and two debates and final votes are to be required.

The plan is very conservative from the point of those who believe in limiting the power of the Lords at all. Defenders of the status quo assert, however, that it would make the Commons autocratic and destroy the framework of the British government. Some of these would reform the house of Lords by placing a number of life members in it and making it more representative and amenable to popular sentiment, while others would not disturb it in the slightest degree.

The debate will be suspended for a time, since the resolution was "academic" and intended merely to take the opinion of the House on the subject and give notice to the Lords. It is certain that the issue will occupy a prominent place in the next general election, for which the liberal government is accumulating ammunition and material. Whether the masses of the people are as thoroughly aroused over the treatment of liberal bills in the Lords as the ministry believes and says they are, and as resolved to curb and shackle the upper house for the future, time will tell.



A Century of Foreign Criticism on The United States--A Study of Progress.

I. The Problem Opened.

By John Graham Brooks

IT was an accident, but I shall always think of it as a happy one. In 1893, just starting upon a long lecture tour through the Middle West, I fell upon three volumes of Criticisms on our American Life and Institutions, "Travels in North America." They were written in 1827-8 by a distinguished naval officer, Captain Basil Hall. They were in their time a classic in this literature of foreign observation. The mother of our veteran man of letters, T. W. Higginson, left an account of this traveler who was introduced to her home by the historian Jared Sparks.

Later we hear that "everybody" is reading Capt. Hall's book, losing their temper and wondering how he could accept so much hospitality and then go home to write three volumes of abuse, stupidities, and slanders. I cannot imagine an American today reading those books with one flutter of fretful emotion. He was "honest as a Saxon" and extremely painstaking. With hardy conscientiousness, he traveled several thousand miles, really seeing most phases of life then observable in the United States.

Quite two generations had passed between the publication, and my reading of these books. As the author's letters of introduction opened all doors to him, he saw much

of what was best in the home life of those days. An inveterate note-taker, he made records of his observations upon our institutions, religion, manners, habits, politics, business, and modes of life. Like most of the earlier English visitors, he brought with him his own national standard of well-doing and to this test of propriety he submitted every unhappy variation in our American behavior. By so far as it was not English, by so far was it an object for correction and disapproval. He visited Congress, where he was surprised and offended because objectionable orators were not forthwith coughed or groaned into silence, as was the effective custom in the House of Commons.

I was much struck with one peculiarity in these debates,—the absence of all cheering, coughing, or other methods by which in England, public bodies take the liberty of communicating to the person who is speaking a full knowledge of the impression made upon the audience. In America there is nothing to supply the endless variety of tones in which the word 'Hear! Hear!' is uttered in the House of Commons, by which the member who is speaking ascertains, with the utmost distinctness and precision, whether the House are pleased or displeased with him, bored or delighted, or whether what he says is granted or denied—lessons eminently useful in the conduct of public debate.

In our own day we are not without agitation over spelling reform, but where among conservatives would one find a match for this doughty objector? The English Dictionary had to him a final sacredness which makes the slightest deviation an affront to the language. When he discovers a few new words, he cannot rest until he sets us right.

"Surely," he says, "such innovations are to be deprecated."

"I don't know that," replies the American. "If a word becomes universally current in America where English is spoken, why should it not take its station in the language?"

"Because," answers our critic, "*there are words*



Chiefs of the Creek Nation and a Georgia Squatter. Illustration
from Travels of Captain Basil Hall.

As Others See Us



Two Slave Drivers and a Backwoodsman with His Rifle. Illustrations from Travels of Captain Basil Hall.

*enough in our language already and it only confuses matters and hurts the cause of letters to introduce such words.”**

Another Englishman in our own day, far better instructed in linguistic matters than Basil Hill, shows us the change in literary tolerance. The latter declared his countrymen thought of the Americans as having received from England every good they possessed. It was rank impiety to take the slightest liberty with this inheritance.

England taught the Americans all they have of speech or thought, hitherto. What thoughts they have not learned from England are foolish thoughts; what words they have not learned from England, unseemly words; the vile among them not being able even to be humorous parrots, but only obscene mocking-birds.

In the judgment of William Archer we now see how far we have left behind us this petty provincialism:

He writes: New words are begotten by new conditions of life; and as American life is far more fertile of new conditions than ours, the tendency towards neologism cannot but be stronger in America than in England. America has enormously enriched the language, not only with new words, but (since the American mind is, on the whole, quicker and wittier than the English) with apt and luminous colloquial metaphors.†

There is scarcely a trait of our moral, intellectual, and institutional life that we cannot in the same way test by changes in the opinions of these critics who sit in judgment upon us.

Captain Hall came when the aristocratic traditions of property and religion were rapidly yielding to democratic forms and standards. This filled him with alarm. Every American aristocrat together with all the lackey imitators of aristocracy assured him that these democratic substitutes were the hand-writing on the wall. The sun was about to set on the “great experiment.”

This is the kind of alarm-signal which Hall selects to prove our oncoming calamities that are of most interest to

*Vol. I., pg. 37.

†America Today; William Archer, Scribner's, 1899. Pg. 218.

us. He was sure for instance that both our manners and morals are in peril because we have no class among us to spend money with grace and distinction. He counted this among the highest of arts, "more difficult than the art of making it," — "the art of spending it like a gentleman." If we had but among us these models, free from the stain of making their own living, they could so spend income which others had earned as to set before the common people worthy and inspiring ideals. This "art of spending like a gentleman" may be taught like other arts. The Captain is confident that plain and honest folk in the United States would respond, if they could have in familiar circulation a goodly number of these models. Then they would show the most vulgar how to do it. Especially if one disburses unearned moneys, it may be done with a courtly abandon that cannot fail to impress the most stolid among the masses. He feels sure, too, that these artistic largesses would strengthen the bonds of society as well as refine it. It would deepen the sense among the people that they were in the presence of superior persons, and this could not fail to quicken gratitude and sympathy even among the most lowly.

If there are any misgivings about this, you have only to look to the Mother Country where a "permanent money-spending" gentry willingly serve as models with results so conspicuous as to silence all doubts.

That we should have given up flogging in the army, struck him likewise as a peril to the Republic. From careful inquiries he finds what he feared — that discipline is declining and, what one would not have expected, "*the soldiers becoming discontented.*" In spite of their writhings under the lash, they really understood its beneficence. It was because no profane hand had touched the custom of flogging in the navy — thereby introducing discontent among the flogged sailors — that the superiority of the navy becomes clear to him.

It was a real perplexity to him that so many of the

common people behaved as if they were not inferiors. It was a kind of bluff that he had not before encountered.

An observed difference of manner in serving at table, calls out this comment :

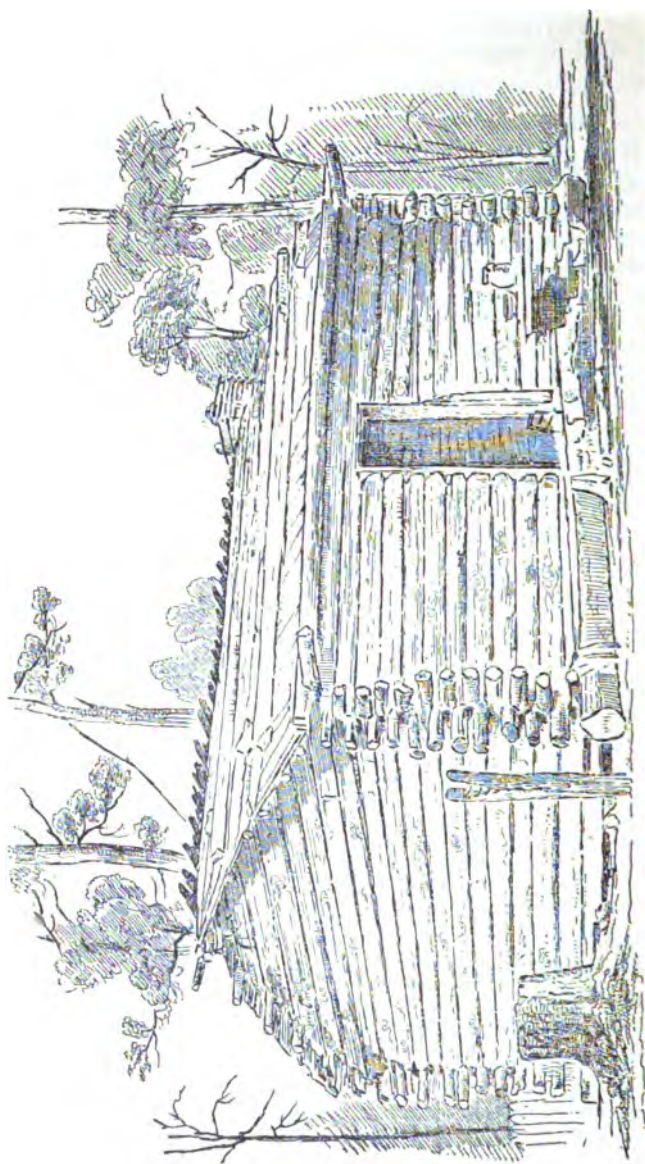
At a place called the Little Falls, where we stopped to dine, a pretty young woman, apparently the daughter of the master of the house, also served us at dinner. When her immediate attendance was not required, she sat down in the window with her work, *exactly as if she had been one of the party*. There was nothing, however, in the least degree forward or impudent in this; on the contrary, it was done quietly and respectfully, though with perfect ease, and without the least consciousness of its being contrary to European manners.*

That we should think of discarding primogeniture and allow the property to pass equally to all the children is an amazing blunder. How can a society survive in "the absence of all classification of ranks?" For the absence of ranks "prevents people becoming sufficiently well acquainted with one another to justify such intimacies."

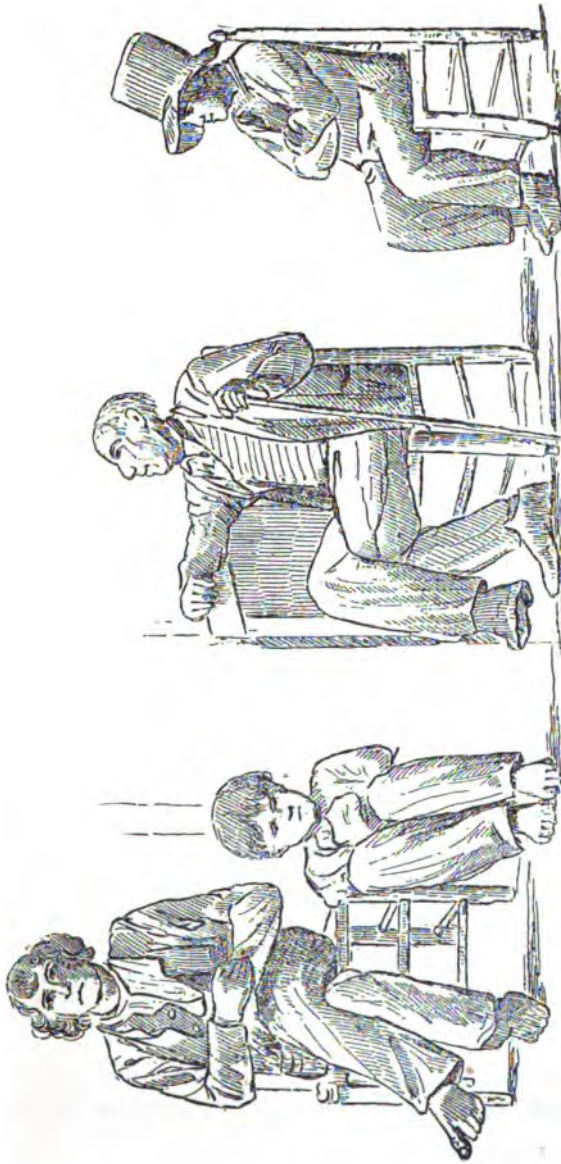
The vast landed estates of the Livingstones on the Hudson were actually in danger of passing into the hands of Tom, Dick, and Harry. Where half a dozen landlords once lived, he finds to his dismay "as many hundreds may now be counted."* The fulness of the calamity can only be seen when its consequences are considered. It will not leave an income on which one may live like a gentleman without work.

In his anxiety for our welfare, he says :

The property of the parent, therefore, is generally divided equally amongst the children. This division, as may be supposed, seldom gives to each sufficient means to enable him to live independently of business; and consequently, the same course of money-making habits which belonged to the parents necessarily descends to the son. Or, supposing there be only one who succeeds to the fortune, in what way is he to spend it? Where, when and with whom? How is he to find companionship How expect



Log House in the Forests of Georgia. Taken from an Illustration of Captain Basil Hall's Account.



Family Group from the Interior of Georgia. Illustration Taken from Captain Basil Hall's Account.

sympathy from the great mass of all the people he mixes amongst, whose habits and tastes lie in totally different directions?"*

Captain Hall was here several years before England had done away with those rotten boroughs which enabled a few landlords to make all the laws of the land. Yet he was thrown into much heat by the suggestion that the House of Commons needed reforming in this respect. "I do not think," he says, "we could possibly make it better."† Birmingham at that time could send no representative to Parliament; yet this city, says Mr. Hall, "is in practise one of the best *represented* cities in the Empire."

So, too, our separation of Church and State is like throwing away "the fly-wheel in a great engine." Yet this intelligent gentleman had been in all parts of the world and was an honored guest and friend in the family of Sir Walter Scott, as we learn in Lockhart's Life.

The extracts given are not wholly just to him, as there is much good will, innumerable shrewd comments on our manners and customs; and throughout, a certain obdurate purpose to learn the facts. In his final comments he even shows surprising humility. He discovers that his notes contain the most bewildering contradictions which reflect upon the finality of his observations. He adds:

For my part, I acknowledge fairly, that after some experience in the embarrassing science of traveling, I have often been so much out of humor with the people amongst whom I was wandering that I have most perversely derived pleasure from meeting things to find fault with; and very often, I am ashamed to say, when asking for information, have detected that my wish was rather to prove my original and prejudiced conceptions right, than to discover that I had previously done the people injustice.‡

His serenity during the trip was often ruffled by impudent inclination on the part of many Americans to disre-

*Vol. I., pg. 307.

†Vol. I., pg. 49.

‡Vol. I., pg. 167.

gard and even, in extreme cases, scoff at his good counsels. And thus, with much kindly feeling, we part from this guest and general advisor.

It was rather his strictures upon our minor vices, if they are minor: our much spitting, our unlovely voices, familiarities, curiosities, incessant national bragging, and undue sensitiveness to criticism that made me grateful to the author during those three months journeying fourteen years ago. Reading his pages by bits in trains and in hotels, I was quickened to ask, what of these criticisms are still true about us? How far are we still the people described in those volumes? I had written four closely summarized pages of individual and institutional characteristics which Captain Hall thought he saw in us. With this list in hand, it was easier to note at least some great changes both in institutions and in our conduct as citizens and neighbors. With these observations for a background, one could take measurements. For example, like several other visitors in those days, Hall was struck repeatedly by the frigid isolation of men and women at social gatherings.

I seldom observed anything in America but the most respectful and icy propriety upon all occasions when young people of different sexes were brought together. Positively I never once, during the whole period I was in that country, saw anything approaching, within many degrees, to what we should call a flirtation.

Again, "The result of all my observations and inquiries is, that the women do not enjoy that station in society which has been allotted to them elsewhere; and consequently much of that important and habitual influence which, from the peculiarity of their nature, they alone can exercise over society in more fortunately arranged communities, seems to be lost."

All things are working, he thinks, to give the two sexes in the United States "such different classes of occupations, that they seldom act together; and this naturally prevents the growth of that intimate companionship, which

nothing can establish but the habitual interchange of opinions and sentiments upon topics of common employment.”*

Mrs. Trollope says she was at several balls “where everything was on the most liberal scale of expense, when the gentlemen sat down to supper in one room, while the ladies took theirs, standing, in another.”

It was at this time, that I first heard two university teachers with much experience in instructing men and women together, expressing alarm at co-education. “It brings them,” said one, “far too closely together, socially and educationally. The young fellow sees the girl at such close range and so constantly, that she loses the mystery and charm that are her best asset.” I do not recall any argument based on the supposed lowering of educational standard because of co-education. It was rather that academic and social intercourse had become too fraternal and intimate.†

Here, then, is a wide span between the icy disengagement of the sexes in 1827 and the present freedom of fellowship. If travelers in those days are to be believed, this condition has further illustration in the grotesque prudery of the women. To utter aloud in their presence the word shirt was an open insult. Mrs. Trollope does not state this more strongly than other writers when she says:

A young German gentleman of perfectly good manners, once came to me greatly chagrined at having offended one of the principal families in the neighborhood, by having pronounced the word corset before the ladies of it.

I once mentioned to a young lady that I thought a picnic party would be very agreeable, and that I would propose it to some of our friends. She agreed that it would be delightful, but she added, ‘I fear you will not succeed;

*Travels in the United States. Vol. II., pp. 150, 153. See also pg. 157.

†Von Polenz, in a recent book of admirable temper, speaks of the freedom of intercourse in its beautiful expression between the sexes. *Das Land der Zukunft*, p. 231.

In 1904 a Frenchman writes, “I have nowhere seen a freer, happier, or more wholesome mingling of the sexes than in the United States.”

we are not used to such sort of things here, and I know it is considered very indelicate for ladies and gentlemen to sit down together on the grass.*

"When Powers' 'Chanting Cherubs' were exhibited in Boston, it was necessary to drape their loins with linen, and a like treatment was accorded to an orang-outang which visited the city about the same time.†

It is a far journey from this to days when thousands of well-bred girls hasten, without parental resistance, to listen to plays of Bernard Shaw and to others freer still. Whether the change is approved or deplored, it is very great, and our critics furnish the personal perspective through which the change may be seen.

Returning home, I at once re-read Dickens' "American Notes" and the parts of "Martin Chuzzlewit" which refer to the United States. I had forgotten the lively resentment roused by their first reading. What had happened that thirty years later the smart of his grossest caricatures had utterly disappeared? It was partly because one recognized so much truth in the picture. There were characteristics in our public and private life which richly deserved the kind of punishment which this great humorist administered. It is now plain history that we had many a promoter's scheme which the bunco game land sales in "Martin Chuzzlewit" scarcely exaggerates. Philadelphians wanted to put Dickens in a cell for telling such lies about their model prison. We now know that he told the truth; that he did a public service in calling attention to the essential barbarity of that boasted prison method. When he wrote "those benevolent gentlemen who carry it into execution, do not know what they are doing," he was both seer and prophet. We all learned, too, that Dickens, like Matthew Arnold, was impartial. He was as pitiless in his caricature of evils in England as of those in the United States. Twenty-five

*Vol. I., p. 192.

†McMaster's History of the People of the United States. Vol. VI., p. 96.

years later, 1868, he came again to this country, noting the "gigantic changes" — "changes in the graces and amenities of life, changes in the Press, etc., to which he adds, "I have been received with unsurpassable politeness, delicacy, sweet temper, hospitality, consideration." The sting has gone from all his gibes, because we are far enough away to measure both the critic and the objects criticized.

For my journey on the following year, I took Harriet Martineau's "Society in America," Hamilton's "Men and Manners in America," Mrs. Trollope's "Domestic Manners of the Americans." The latter book I had long before read, but, as with Dickens, the new reading was merely good fun. To have as traveling companion a commentator as penetrating as Harriet Martineau, had the quick reward of added interest in one's fellow passengers on the train and in the happenings at hotels and stations. Probably no one, except Mr. Bryce, read more carefully in preparation for the trip than this distinguished woman. There is no phase of our life that her two volumes leave untouched. If we add to these, the portions of her Autobiography devoted to us, we have a cyclopedia of critical observation on our institutions, religion, morals, politics, manners, voices, education, industrial and economic life which is invaluable, if our purpose is to measure the ups and downs, the tendencies, changes and progress in this country.

These three authors finished, I resolved to collect the foreign critics of this country; those who came after the turmoil of the Revolution had subsided and the adoption of the Constitution had given us a steadier and more uniform life. The list has reached sixty-seven volumes. It is a partial list, not half the full number, and every reader will think of books not here mentioned. It does, nevertheless, include most of those whose opinions we care to consider. To search out all the critics was no part of my purpose, neither to report all the opinions of those selected. The books are used solely to throw, if possible, a little light on social *movement* (whether forwards or backward)



Harriet Martineau ..

A Malicious Contemporary Sketch of Harriet Martineau, Emphasizing the Fact That She Was a "Maiden Lady." From a Rare Cut Presented to the Author by a Daughter of the Poet Longfellow.

in this country. For example, an Englishman as intelligent as Janson, living here thirteen years, comes to this conclusion about our government:

With all the lights of experience blazing before our eyes, it is impossible not to discern the futility of this form of government. It was weak and wicked in Athens. It was bad in Sparta, and worse in Rome. It has been tried in France, and has terminated in despotism. It was tried in England, and rejected with the utmost loathing and abhorrence. It is on trial here, and the issue will be civil war, desolation, and anarchy.

However haltingly it has gone with us, this lowering judgment is a landmark from which we derive encouragement.

If a statesman of the rank of Richard Cobden finds that no power on earth can prevent the swift triumph of free trade in this country; if he can tabulate all the reasons why liberty in trade will become as sacred to Americans as liberty in other spheres, that, too, is a landmark stimulating many reflections. Miss Martineau, as an economist, found sure evidence that labor and capital must in the nature of things live happily together under our institutions. She found entire absence of paupers and a state of bliss in the Lowell cotton mills.

Another has proof that "opportunity" together with "solitary confinement in our magnificent prisons" will cause the total disappearance of criminal classes and thus take off a great burden of expenditure."

The greatest of French critics tells us why our democracy will prevent the buying of votes. With what reflections would De Tocqueville now investigate Pennsylvania and Rhode Island or, indeed, most of our States?

These are samples of opinion two generations ago. Like landmarks they fix and define the attention. A little later, we were assured that the days of the Republic were numbered because women were demanding "rights" which would turn into a license, "destructive of the very elements of social safety."

From such driven stakes, we may test movement and direction through the century. With specific exceptions, it is a story extremely chilling to the pessimist. It is, upon the whole, a story which gives the lie to a thousand dire prophecies that the people cannot learn self-government. It is above all a story that puts new vitality and interest into our home problems. It was an unexpected reward in reading these books to find a new charm in American life. Much that had seemed to me commonplace, dull or trivial, was clothed with surprising interest. Why should this not be so?

We do not think it half intelligent to travel in Italy without our Burckhardt, Symonds, Taine or other literature as interpreter. How many of us do this for our own country? There is no distinctive section of the United States that has not an illuminating literature. To pass along the trail of Andy Adams' "Log of a Cowboy" with that book in hand is to get three or four times as much pleasure out of the trip. The same service is done for other parts of the country by Cable, Fox, Craddock, Miss Jewett, Miss Deland, and a score of others.

I saw once three college girls on the boat plying between Richmond and Old Point Comfort. One was reading a novel by Daudet, the second was absorbed in the last story by Mrs. Humphrey Ward, and the third by something quite as unrelated to the opportunities of the day. They were on their first trip upon this most interesting river in America. Not a sweeping curve of it, that is not rich with memorable events. John Fiske's "Virginia and Her Neighbors" or one of James Rhodes sterling volumes gives new and fascinating meaning to every mile of that day's journey. Think of a college girl passing Jamestown for the first time dazed by a French novel. If romance were a necessity, one would think that the local color in stories, like those of Ellen Glasgow or Miss Johnson or Thomas Nelson Page might meet the need.

In a still larger way the best of these foreign critics

arouse curiosity about problems and events which we so largely take for granted as to feel at most a sleepy interest in them. Even the superficial observations of the stranger, quick to notice all dissimilarity, arouse our home consciousness in many ways. At the St. Louis Exposition, I saw a most intelligent and experienced American teacher thrown into a state of lively excitement by so simple a question as this. A German teacher asked, "In your Educational Exhibits, why do you display the work of the pupils so much, and the efficiency of the teachers so little? It looks as if you were trying to show them off." "Well," he answered, "I never in my life thought of it before, but I think that is precisely what we do. Yes, we try to show them off too much." It was the contention of the German that far more should be made of the training and competence of the instructor; that this should be at the front rather than a display of the child. "We do not think one quite fit to teach in our German schools unless he is so solidly prepared and so far beyond his pupils as to be perfectly secure. If he has to show off the class — or to struggle with his subject in order to keep just ahead of those he teaches, the best result cannot possibly be reached."

With the merits of this observation, I am less concerned than with the effect upon the American teacher. He said, "The conversation with that German has paid me for coming to St. Louis, if I don't learn another thing."

About every phase of our life and institutions, this is what the outside observer may do for us.

An English writer does not overstate it when he says, "I read Bryce before I left home, and I read him again while here. The trip would have been worth the two hundred pounds it cost me if I had read nothing else. Bryce has added at least four-fold, both to the pleasure and profit."

It is almost an equal service that these books may render to us at home.

Before passing to the general account of these critics

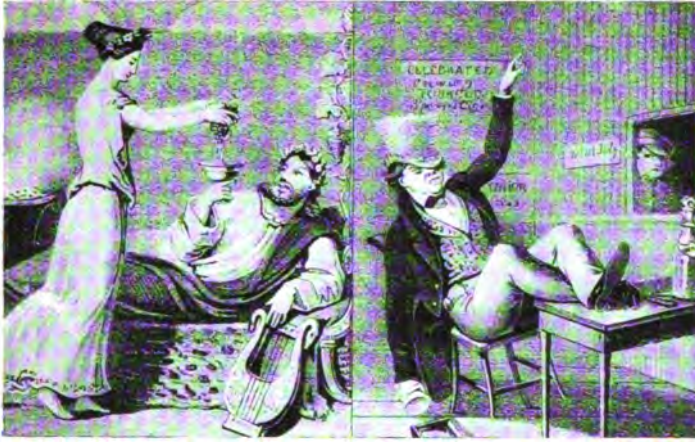
in the following chapter, one observation should be made. To criticize or to make merry over the peculiarities of foreign peoples has been from time immemorial one of the neverfailing sources of national gaiety. Every variety of personal and race difference becomes a natural target for ridicule or censure. An Englishman goes to live in a small French town in 1803. He writes home that "these barbarians make fun of me everywhere just because I am properly dressed and speak the language of a human being. They chatter like apes and dress like Punch and Judy." In spite of so much admiration, Voltaire sees the English, Shakespeare included, as essentially barbarians; while to the average Englishman of that time, the French were "half insane and half monkey." This provincialism is not confined to the stay-at-homes or to the ignorant. It disturbs, as we shall see, the judgment of very wise men.

As one of our haunting perplexities will be in avoiding local standards of comparison as our institutions and national behavior are brought to the bar, I shall make frequent reference to four critics who have nothing to do with the United States. Karl Hillebrand's "France and the French," Hamerton's "French and English," de Amici's "Holland" and Taine's "Notes on England." These are critics of so high a class, each with so much knowledge and so much cosmopolitan sympathy, that we may by their help correct the narrowing tendency to praise or condemn because our own village standards are set at naught.

II. Concerning Our Critics.

It would be better if four-fifths of the earlier critical literature here dealt with could be expurgated. We should thus be relieved from reading for the fortieth time that we lack many things: courtly behavior, a great literature, the ennobling ministries of the fine arts, imposing ruins, and cathedrals. We should be relieved of interminable commentary on our bad roads, hotels, boarding houses, rocking chairs, ice water, hot bread, over-heated rooms, mountainous helps to ice cream, and even Niagara. A reasonable disclosure of these deficiencies enlightens and exhilarates but there is a pitch or reiteration beyond which hot bread and Niagara alike become a surfeit. It was thus a pleasant shock when H. G. Wells refused to admire Niagara. He is the first to break the long monotony of approval. The Falls may be said to be the only American phenomenon in the praise of which all previous critics agree. They pretty nearly agree about our bragging and about the Capitol at Washington, but with nothing like the unanimity with which they approach Niagara. To all observers it is an instant challenge to a literary flight. It seems as profane to leave it undescribed as to pass it by altogether. In recent years three objects have diverted attention somewhat from the above list: the sky scraper, the observation car, and the Statue of Liberty in New York Harbor. To the visitor landing and departing, this proud lady with her luminous torch "enlightening the world" is at once a symbol and an inspiration. If he thinks well of us, the draped figure becomes alive and radiant with hope. If he thinks ill of us, the poor lady serves only for taunts and satire. So conspicuous is she at the point of landing that ice water and rocking chairs are in peril of being overlooked by future travelers.

At whatever risk, I shall make slight use of all these overworked objects. We shall not as a nation stand or fall on our hot bread or even on our portentous helps to ice cream or the majestic demeanor of our hotel clerks.



The Old Republic and the New. Illustration from Mrs. Trollope's
 "Domestic Manners of the Americans"

That in our thinly populated days we should have had bad roads; that we should be late in developing literature and the arts; that the very immensity of our natural resources should have hitherto chiefly absorbed our energies, putting inventions, trade and the dollar mark much to the front. are facts so easily accounted for that one wonders why they should have called out so much reproachful and condescending speculation.

As it is our purpose to get the best out of those who come to study us, it is first necessary to ask who our critic is, and, as far as possible, what motive brought him. We have an English lecturer writing openly, "I really went out there [to the United States] for the express purpose of showing what a mess they are making of it." A very great person, socially, lived some months in Hoboken, New Jersey, because he was a fugitive from English justice. He disliked us extremely and even had his fling at Hoboken as a place of residence. A tenderly nurtured gentleman with royal blood in him can be forgiven much under those circumstances. That Prince Talleyrand, after living his life



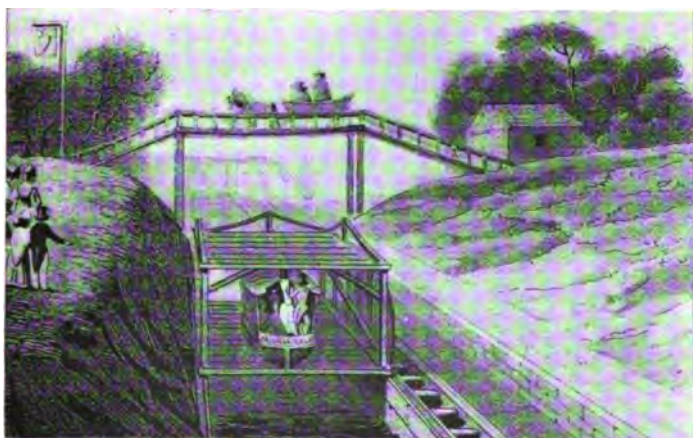
A Cincinnati Ballroom—The Ladies Chatting in one Room, the Gentlemen Eating and Drinking in a Room Adjoining. From Mrs. Trollope's "Domestic Manners of the Americans."



An Indiana Camp-Meeting in 1823. From Mrs. Trollope's "Domestic Manners of the Americans."



Court-Room Scene in Primitive America. Illustration from Mrs. Trollope's "Domestic Manners of the Americans."



Lock on the Morris Canal. Illustration from Mrs. Trollope's "Domestic Manners of the Americans."



American Prudery—Miss Clarissa Embarassed at the Mention of the Word "Shirt." From Mrs. Trollope's "Domestic Manners of the Americans."



How American Ladies Shod Themselves in Winter. From Mrs. Trollope's "Domestic Manners of the Americans."

among the most stirring events and brilliant company in Europe, should find us tiresome can be understood without much strain on the imagination. It is also satisfying that we have received our most abusive reproofs from men like Renan, Carlyle, and Ruskin, who never came to us. The poet-craftsman William Morris was also of them, until he was shown photographs of Richardson's architecture. This brought from him the exclamation, "Talent like that may save the States after all." To "Americanize" anything, was to Renan, the measure of its vulgarization.* All these safe-distance critics were urged to visit this country, but refused for the same reason that a famous American refused to go to Chicago, because—it was Chicago.

Many of those who came in the first half of the century are at pains to tell us about the motives that brought them. In the main it was the desire to study men and institutions developing under supposedly democratic government.

Cut loose from England, what would happen with power at last in the hands of the people! Nowhere was curiosity about all this so keen as in France. Prizes were there proposed for essays on this subject. It was seen that Europe could not escape the influence of every democratic success in America. All those who believed that the people should be saved by their social superiors; that political and economic blessings should be confined to the squire and his relations, and common folk kept in their proper stations, looked upon our independence as a threat to the world's well-being.

The industrious Abbé Raynal had the good of the universe much at heart. He concluded, in a work ponderous with misinformation, that the discovery of America was a stark calamity. Another, M. Genty,† showed in much

*The French lecturer, M. Blouet (Max O'Rell) referring to Renan's fear that France would become "Americanized" replied, "May nothing worse happen to her!"

†*L'influence de la Decouverte de l'Amerique*, 1879.

detail, why the happiness of the race is put in jeopardy by our discoverer. According to John Fiske, these timorous patricians agreed in only one thing. One good and one only must be accorded to the enterprise of Columbus — quinine. That had resulted from the discovery, and European fevers were checked. But the brave Genty doubted if political and social fevers would get any cooling from our shores. Even if commerce should swell, what result could follow but a plague of new wants to satisfy?

We get encouragement from only one of these prize writers. He had at least been to America, where he had served as General under Rochambeau. He had a noble enthusiasm for Franklin and Washington. This critic, the Marquis of Chastellux, was the author of that pen picture of Washington that has become so familiar but always pleasant to read again.

His stature is noble and lofty, he is well made, and exactly proportioned; his physiognomy mild and agreeable, but such as to render it impossible to speak particularly of any of his features, so that in quitting him, you have only the recollection of a fine face. He has neither a grave nor a familiar air, his brow is sometimes marked with thought, but never with inquietude; in inspiring respect, he inspires confidence, and his smile is always the smile of benevolence.

He was also the author of other passages which prove him to have been a most philosophic observer. He thinks as DeTocqueville did later, that we were fitted at least for stimulating vast material prosperity which might prove big with danger. This leads to the following reflection upon the inevitable coming of inequalities in a democracy due to great wealth among the favored few:

Now, wherever this inequality exists, the real force will invariably be on the side of property, so that if the influence in government be not proportioned to that property, there will always be a contrariety, a combat between the form of government and its natural tendency; the right will be on one side, and the power on the other; the balance then can only exist between the two equally dangerous extremes, of aristocracy and anarchy. Besides, the ideal

worth of men must ever be comparative; an individual without property is a discontented citizen, when the state is poor; place a rich man near him, he dwindles into a clown. What will result then, one day, from vesting the right of election in this class of citizens? The source of civil broils, or *corruption*, perhaps both at the same time.

He foresaw this danger from our politicians:*

The leaders rather seek to please than serve them [the people]; obliged to gain their confidence before they merit it, they are more inclined to flatter, than instruct them, and fearing to lose the favor they have acquired, they finish by becoming the slaves of the multitude whom they pretended to govern.

As with the letters of Fredrika Bremer and the French Ambassador de Bacourt, Chastellux is all the more valuable because in making his notes he had no thought of publishing them.

But the importance of the motive will best be seen through examples. Many of the first comers are at no pains to conceal the purpose of their visit, or what determined them to write a book about us.

The day of the reporter had not come and there was little fear of the press.

A good illustration of this is C. W. Janson's "Stranger in America." He comes with a small fortune in search of investment.† Before he lands, he is nicknamed "the Grumbler." He adds: "I am ready to confess that I put myself foremost in our struggle to redress grievances." In that character he lived more than ten years in the United States. His investments failed, and thus returning full of expansive aversion, he published his book in London in 1807.

*Travels in North America in 1780-2. Chastellux, pp. 73, 131.
154.

†Vol. I, p. 83.

Janson copies from a paper in Salem, Mass., the following:
"Died in Salem, James Verry, aged twelve, a promising youth, whose early death is supposed to have been brought on by excessive smoking."

The author claims to have seen this practice very generally among mere children. Several other writers note this excessive use of tobacco among the young.

He is not only annoyed by our curiosities but lets it be known that he is annoyed. He avoids the hotel keepers because they are so "irksome." One of his first experiences was, in knocking at the door of an acquaintance, Mr. Janson asked the domestic who opened to him, "Is your master at home?" "I have no master." "Don't you live here?" "I *stay* here." "And who are you then?" "Why, I am Mr.....'s *help*. I'd have you know, *man*, that I'm no servant."*

In 1833 in his "Men and Manners in America," Hamilton shows his motive:

When I found the institutions and the experience of the United States quoted in the reformed Parliament as affording safe precedent for British legislation and learned that the drivellers who uttered such nonsense, instead of encountering merited derision, were listened to with patient approbation by men as ignorant as themselves, I certainly did feel that another work on America was yet wanted.*

For nearly fifty years of the period here covered, it was a social advantage in England to print evidences against the United States. This may be seen in the tip-toe anxiety with which Buckingham beseeches His Majesty to look with favor on his fat volumes. It was obvious in Tom Moore, Dickens, and Miss Trollope.

In his "Diary"† Marryat writes:

Never was there such an opportunity of testing the merits of a republic, of ascertaining if such a form of government could be maintained—in fact, of proving whether an enlightened people could govern themselves.

When Harriet Martineau wrote her slashing review of his book, Marryat replied, "My object was to do injury to democracy." He desires that his opinions on democracy shall be "read by every tradesman and mechanic: pored

*It is a pleasure to hear William Brown of Leeds, England, who was here four years, say plainly that he saw no proud people, but only those in very humble circumstances. "America," 1849.

†Vol. I., 1328.

over even by milliners' girls and boys behind the counter, and thumbed to pieces in every petty circulating library. I wrote the book with this object and I wrote it accordingly."

This gifted writer coming with so fixed a purpose will, of course, find what he came for. After the same manner Thomas Brothers says, "My principal object was to convince you . . . that under what is called self-government there may be as much oppression, poverty and worthlessness, as under any other form of government." He gives 254 closely printed pages in appendices, which are a solid collection of horrors and disgrace taken from the press.

What was the chief object of Mrs. Trollope? "To encourage her countrymen to hold fast by a constitution that ensures all the blessings which flow from established habits and solid principles." "If they forego these, they will incur the fearful risks of breaking up their repose by introducing the jarring tumult and universal degradation which invariably follow the wild scheme of placing all the power of the state in the hands of the populace." Henceforth in great abundance this lady finds at every turn supporting evidence.

I do not claim that these predispositions destroy the value of the criticisms. They do, however, enable us, in making them an object of study, to classify and use them with more intelligence.

We have no difficulty with Francis Wyse and his three volumes when we know why he came. He wanted to warn all healthy Englishmen not to leave their country. English employers will certainly have to pay higher wages if this emigration continues; therefore, Americans are the least trustworthy of nations—they have a notorious and abominable disregard for truth and no regard for contracts.*

In this study of motives that merry poet Tom Moore, is admirable as an example. His stinging lines against us stirred bitterness and rage in the hearts of thousands of Americans. It is a curious sort of American that cannot

*America: Its Realities and Resources. F. Wyse. 3 Vols.

today read the rhymed squibs of this poet without any rankling. We were a fair target for some of those metered shafts. But more than this, we know about the poet just as we know about Mrs. Trollope. She was in the sorest stress for money. Her last resources of raising funds in Cincinnati had gone with her Bazaar. She must write a book about the Americans and about their manners from which she had suffered most. In a raw town of twenty thousand people, she had watched America from the windows of a second class boarding house. If her book was to sell, it must sell in England. Nine-tenths of the people who bought books at that time thought extremely ill of this country. With that class feeling constantly in mind, the disappointed woman wrote her volumes. Mr. Weller senior fully explains her and her kind, "An then let him come back and write a book about the 'Merrikins as'll pay all his expenses and more, if he blows 'em up enough."

It was not essentially different with the Irish poet. The son of a Dublin grocer, he goes up to London where he becomes at once the darling among fashionable diners out. "Where Tom sits no host feels insecure." The poet can entertain all companies. He comes to the United States in 1804, but loves best to dine with English officers, many of whose ships were then here. What do the poet's entertainers relish so much as merry verses and smart hits at the expense of the rustics on land? Over the rim of the champagne glass, or writing to Lady this or Lord that, he paints his word pictures—a kind of rake's progress—solely for ears that delight in our disrepute.

When Lord John Russell says in his preface to Moore's letters, "the sight of democracy triumphant soon disgusted him," we know that the poet's conclusion was as much expected as it was pleasurable. He goes from Norfolk to Baltimore over roads that were "as barbarous as the inhabitants."

How often has it occurred to me that nothing can be more emblematic of the government of this country than

its stages, filled with a motley mixture, all 'hail fellow well met,' driving through mud and filth, which bespatters them as they raise it, and risking an upset at every step. . . . As soon as I am away from them, both the stages and the government may have the same fate for what I care.

From Washington he writes to Lord Forbes that the days of Columbia are already numbered, for on her brow

"The showy smile of young presumption plays,
Her bloom is poison'd and her heart decays."

"Already has she pour'd her poison here
O'er every charm that makes existence dear."

"With honest scorn for that inglorious soul
Which creeps and winds beneath a mob's control,
Which courts the rabble's smile, the rabble's nod,
And makes like Egypt every beast a god."

"Take Christians, Mohawks, democrats and all,
From the rude wigwam to the Congress hall,—
'Tis one dull chaos, one infertile strife
Betwixt half-polished and half-barbarous life."

These tuneful amenities contain the same opinions of us that we find in the private, affectionate letters to his mother. He betrays thus, no inconsistency.

Merely to state the social setting of this favorite minstrel and the time in which he wrote, should leave the most ardent patriot among us quite serene. There was even some excuse, as 1804 was the year when party scurrility and vindictiveness reached perhaps the lowest pitch in our history. The lampoons of Callender against Jefferson were of an incredible grossness that the present day would not for an instant tolerate. That the President was guilty of miscellaneous amours was the least of the charges. We may be certain that many a federalist assured the poet that these libels were true. They knew Callender to be coarsely venal and a liar, for they called him so while he was their enemy. But now that, as turncoat, he attacked Jefferson,

his coarsest blackguardism was welcome. The historian Morse says, "Every Federalist writer hastened to draw for his own use bucketful after bucketful from Callender's foul reservoir and the gossip about Jefferson's graceless debaucheries was sent into every household in the United States." The New England clergy took so active a hand in these defamations that Jefferson wrote, "From the clergy I expect no mercy. They crucified the Savior, who preached that their Kingdom was not of the world: and all who practice on that precept must expect the extreme of their wrath." Josiah Quincy said Jefferson was a "transparent fraud" and his followers "ruffians." From Pickering, Cabot, Rufus King, Fisher Ames and Griswold — the very light and leading of social respectability — the same ominous judgments may be quoted. While to the President of Yale College, our government was in possession of "blockheads and knaves." These model citizens were at that moment freely circulating against Jefferson such tidbits of gossip as that "he had obtained his property by fraud and robbery; that in one instance he had defrauded and robbed a widow and fatherless children of an estate to which he was executor, of ten thousand pounds sterling," etc.

We are today justly sensitive against any insinuation that the high judiciary is corrupt, but in 1804 there was circulated in the press by a member of the Supreme Bench a charge that "the independence of the national judiciary is shaken to its foundations" and that "mobocracy" had us finally in its grip.

It is into this atmosphere that the Irish poet comes. From the "best citizens" he hears night after night more damaging criticism against our democracy than any which he puts into verse. He is only trying to find good rhymes for what well-to-do Americans tell him about their government.

The essence of revolution is the passing of power from one class to another. Federal contral, with the lingering in-

tellectual feudalism still inhering in it, was beginning to pass to the democrats at the opening of the nineteenth century. Nowhere among these foreign critics is there such bitter censure as our own "Society" was everywhere heaping upon the new democracy. It was "as destitute of manners as it was of morals and religion." It had "robbed life of decency and the future of hope." These cheerful confidences were dinner table coin from Philadelphia to Boston. An English visitor in 1824 says: "These Americans are so merciless in criticising their own government that nothing is left over for the outsider."

These drawing-room aspersions were still at white heat when Miss Martineau came thirty years later. She was at first welcomed by very aristocratic families "as the most distinguished woman that had come to us." Of her reception she writes:

The first gentleman who greeted me on my arrival in the United States, a few minutes after I had landed, informed me without delay, that I had arrived at an unhappy crisis; that the institutions of the country would be in ruin before my return to England; that the levelling spirit was desolating society; and that the United States were on the verge of a military despotism.*

Her own honest human sympathies protected her from this influence. But the average foreign critic had only to listen to it and then turn it to his own use. He is talking about us as those among us out of power were themselves talking.

When this is clear, there is little to resent. When we know that Sidney Smith had made a disastrous money investment in this country we sympathize with his invective.

When Kipling first came he was smarting against us because we had pirated his books. In this mood he found the first city in which he landed "inhabited by the insane"; the reporters were all like "rude children"; our speech was "a horror"; everybody was "wolfing" his food; and even our American enterprise was only "grotesque ferocity".

*"Society in America." Vol. I., p. 98.

We can explain and account for many of our critics, leaving behind as little justifiable irritation on our part as in the case of Moore and Kipling. We object to a man like Thomas Ashe, because he was a plain liar, not because he finds fault with us. When Isaac Weld says our mosquitoes bite through the thickest boots, and a French author gets William Penn over here in the *Mayflower*, we are prepared to discount some of their confident generalizations. M. Moreau, as he closes a well meant volume,* relieves us generally of all difficulty in fixing his place among serious critics. Our road to ruin is the drunkenness of our women. M. Moreau has just left us, so that his information startles us by its newness. Not only does the American woman drink, but she drinks like Falstaff. He sees the curse not merely as a cloud on our horizon, but as a heavy pall that threatens the very light of the nation's life. He compares the progressive deterioration to the rolling snow ball, gathering weight and mass as it hurries to destruction. His words are strong. This plague among our women is an "atrocious evil," "a terrible menace." His climax of dismay at our impending doom culminates when he asks, "Are there exceptions?" As a friend of ours, he would fain believe that exceptions exist, yet the number of semi-sots is so great that he is in doubt. That the women drinkers "constitute a very strong majority" he is firmly convinced. He is moved to qualify his statement so far as to admit that it is rare to see the women "fall an inert mass" from intoxication, but in dangerous degrees they drink "so as to act unconsciously."†

This gentleman has seen a great deal of our life and met or corresponded with some of the ablest Americans. I have tried to get the history of his dire prophecy of our downfall through woman's inebriety. In part at least it is

**I'Envers des Etats-Unis.*

†An Englishman writes that while the man in the United States consumes enormous quantities of liquor in the form of "coffee varnish" and "dead man's pallor," "if a woman took a glass of wine, they would send for the police."

this. There are a good many country clubs about our larger cities, frequented by lively young women who take great liberties with highballs and cocktails. They often order them with much bravado and with a kind of expansion that seems to fill the entire landscape. It is something from which one would like to look away, but its very singularity and extravagance hold the attention. The larger city has also a group of popular restaurants, patronized alike by the half-world and by those who feel far above it, but cannot be quite sure, except by close and constant inspection of their moral inferiors. Any and all of these much haunted resorts would give a touring stranger just the opinion which Monsieur Moreau came to entertain. If he saw the most highly paced among our various smart sets, he might again draw sinister inferences about our future. But to draw large conclusions about national morals from these vagabond data is to lose one's head as a competent observer.

As far as possible serious critics alone will here claim our attention.

Among our visitors are the following:

From France, Brissot de Warville; the Count de Ségur; the Dukes La Rochefoucauld-Liancourt, and de Lausan; the Marquis of Chastellux; Chateaubriand; Lafayette; Volney (he of the Ruins); Prince Talleyrand; Dr. Gasparin, a son of Napoleon's favorite General Murat, who was here many years; De Tocqueville; Ampère; the Duke of Chartres (Louis Philippe); the Utopian Cabet; the economist Chevalier sent on a brief mission by Thiers but becoming so interested that he spent two years; the sociologist de Roussier; Professor Claudio Janet; the present Prime Minister Clemenceau; the publicist Carlier; the academician Paul Bourget; Madame Blanc (Th. Bentzon); and Edmond de Nevers.

From England have come Robert Owen; the Trollopes, mother and son; Harriet Martineau; Mrs. Jameson; Marryat; Dickens; Thackeray; Cobden; Fanny Kemble;

Combe; and the redoubtable Cobbett; Sir Charles Lyell (four volumes); Tyndall; Huxley; Spencer; Fred-eric Harrison; Matthew Arnold; John Morley; Freeman, the historian; Kipling; Sir Robert Ball, the astronomer; James Bryce; and Joseph Chamberlin.

From Germany: F. J. Grund; J. I. Kohl; Weitling, the socialist; Professor von Raumer; Prince von Wied; F. Bodenstedt; Herr Grillenburger; von Holst; von Polenz; Karl Zimmerman; Professor Muensterberg; and the historian Lamprecht.

In the way of approval, of censure, or of warning, these observers should have a various message from which a little open-mindedness and good will on our part ought to pluck some profit.





The Story of American Painting

Foreword

By Edwina Spencer

Author of "American Sculptors."

IT has been my purpose in writing these articles upon the growth and achievement of painting in the United States to present the subject in the light of its importance as an integral part of our national life; and by so doing, to help my readers toward three definite ends. First, a knowledge of an artistic inheritance, in the lives and works of the early painters; second, a sympathetic appreciation of the work being accomplished today in the various fields of contemporary painting; third, an intelligent understanding of what American art means to us, both as individuals and as a nation.

Properly to comprehend the art of any country or period, we must realize that "painters are but the hands, and poets the voices whereby peoples express their accumulated thought and permanent emotions." Art, in every age, embodies the beliefs, thoughts and feelings of its time; it records the different stages of mankind's experience. Famous paintings and statues do not represent merely what great artists have *executed*; they express, through the artist's mind and hand, what thousands of his fellow men and women have *thought* and *felt*. Great battle-pictures result from the heroism and the martial spirit of fighting men. Pictures painted solely to catch some lovely revelation of form or color are inspired by no less real emotion,—the delight in

pure beauty, for its own sake, that stirs so many hearts. The Madonnas of the old Italian masters grew from the souls of the people. Spanish ecclesiastical painting is the autograph of the Inquisition.

As the artist's work is produced by the aims and ideals, the social and political conditions in the midst of which he lives, he serves his age by thus recording its civilization,—the measure of its material prosperity, of its spiritual, intellectual, and social advancement. Since prehistoric times, art in its various forms—architecture, sculpture, painting, and the crafts—has been creating a clear and continuous record of human life, which, in its faithful disclosures, is often more reliable than written history. The wonderful civilization of ancient Egypt is set before us in her tombs and temples, with their carved and colored decorations. The glories of Greece still live in her sculpture; while from the work of painters and craftsmen we gain our truest knowledge of that elaborate society which passed away with old Japan. Reflected in the mirror of French painting, we see the history of France, in all its force and frivolity, its terrors and its triumphs.

This art renders us one important service; but it should serve us at the same time in another, and more immediate way. It should open our eyes to beauty everywhere, and to the good taste and suitability that produce beauty. As public taste develops the demand increases for cleanliness, healthfulness and decorative charm in our cities, and for attractiveness, refinement and harmony in our homes.

There was once more or less prevalent in America a feeling that art was a thing foreign to us and outside our needs,—something confined to the wealthy, a luxury or even an affectation. This, of course, arose from our being uninformed as to the real benefits of art, and from our misunderstanding of its use in the community. We have since learned that we need not own a picture to enjoy it, any more than we need own the sunset, but that the *capability to enjoy* both nature and art broadens our interests and heightens

our powers. Appreciation of the best in art helps us to live more fully. It reacts upon our daily lives, by bringing them in touch with the noblest ideas and aspirations of men in other lands and ages, and by setting before us the great truths of all time; it enlarges our outlook, awakens our sympathies, preserves our ideals.

With these things in mind, will it not repay us to give the history of painting in our own country serious consideration?

Painting in the Colonies

THE development of art in a nation like ours, founded through Colonial expansion, must differ inevitably from that of an older civilization. In Egypt or Greece we may trace the story of art from prehistoric times. From the first gropings of a primitive people toward artistic expression, it followed the natural order of racial progress. Art in the United States has resulted from the transplanting of highly civilized people into primitive surroundings, and the conditions produced have been peculiar in their effect. While the colonists themselves were of advanced intelligence, their environment was long unfavorable to artistic growth; and when that growth did begin, it was directed by a complex interplay of influences which affords an interesting study.

One or two adventurous European artists, curious to see and sketch the marvels of the new world, accompanied the very earliest expeditions over; but they did not remain, and their attempts at illustrating various accounts of America, as well as the crude drawings with which Champlain, the explorer, embellished his records, have no real connection with the genesis of painting in the colonies.

Most of the colonists were familiar with European cities, and carried into the wilderness the memory of a long-established art, as expressed in fine buildings, public monuments and paintings. But they were plunged at once

into a struggle with the heavy problems of pioneer life, and the stern exigencies of the task demanded all their powers. The encouragement of anything like decorative art or historical painting was out of the question; landscape painting, as we understand it, is a product of the nineteenth century and was not known to the Europe of that day. Portraiture alone afforded a field for colonial endeavor, and almost from the first there were "limners"* at work inaugurating the long series of conscientious portraits which form the first stage of our artistic history.

Before the year 1700, however, we find but meager traces of any attempt at painting. During the first century of their existence, the little towns and villages scattered along the coast devoted all their forces to making a success of their tremendous experiment. In the South, despite such annihilating disasters as befel the early Virginia settlements, the colonists finally established a life of ease and comfort; north of them, the Dutch and Quaker stock thrived more sturdily, in growing prosperity; and after those first years spent in "defying danger, cold and hunger, guarding their scant stores, restraining their appetites," New England afforded increasing largesse to those who clung so persistently to its less hospitable shores. When the eighteenth century dawned, the worst of the heroic fight for a foothold was over.

Meantime, a few limners had been at work, chiefly in the north, making our first portraits painted on this side the water. We know nothing of these men, except the names of two or three, and some clues as to where they worked; it is not possible even to assign definite authorship to their pictures which have come down to us. Most of our

*The word "limner" (spelled in the old records "limnore," "lymrenour," and "luminour,") is from the same root as the word "illuminator," applied to one who "illuminated," that is, decorated with colored designs, the pages of manuscript books. A *limner* was a person able to delineate in pencil or color; in our colonial days, a man who was equal to drawing, and perhaps coloring, a tolerable likeness and who usually traveled from town to town, following this profession.



Mrs. Hannah Gardiner McSparren, by John Smybert. In Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

very oldest portraits were painted abroad, as those in Pilgrim Hall, Plymouth, doubtless were—though perhaps the one there of Elizabeth Paddy Wensley (born here in 1641), was made in Massachusetts. The limner has taken great pains with her elaborate costume, and drawn her laces as though he agreed with a writer of the time, that “things farre-fetched and deare-bought are good for Ladies”! It



The Family of Dean Berkeley. Painted at Newport by John Smybert, in 1731. Owned by Yale University.

is more than probable that the portrait of little John Quincy, (great-grandfather of John Quincy Adams), painted in 1690, when he was a year and a half old, is the work of an early limner; as may be also certain contemporary portraits of Cotton Mather and others.

But with the first quarter of the eighteenth century, a few foreigners of more ability came to America, and we have some knowledge regarding three men who established themselves and spent the rest of their lives here,—one in the South and in Philadelphia, one in New Jersey, and one in Massachusetts. Antedating these three, however, a woman was busy in Charleston, South Carolina, as early as 1705: Henrietta Johnson, who made portraits of merit in pastel, fifteen of which have been identified. She died in Charleston in 1729; but I can not discover whether or not she was born here, and thus may lay claim to being our first native artist.

In May, 1711, there landed in Delaware, Gustavus Hesselius, who came over from Sweden, where he was born at Folkarna in 1682,—the son of a Swedish minister. Hesselius painted for more than forty years in Maryland and Pennsylvania; and he executed the first public art commission that we know to have been given in the colonies. On September 5, 1721, he was commissioned "to draw ye history of our Blessed Saviour and ye Twelve Apostles at ye last supper," for the altar of the Church of St. Barnabas, in Queen Anne Parish, Maryland, a parish distinguished for its hospitable gentry, its refinement, and social gaiety. The records show that the altar piece was completed the next year, seventeen pounds being paid Hesselius for it. Since the destruction of the church in 1773, it has disappeared.

This artist called himself a "face-painter," and some of his portraits are extant, though until recently they have been confused with those of his son John. His quaint, formal presentments of himself and his wife Lydia are owned by the Pennsylvania Historical Society. In 1735, we



Detail of Berkeley Group, Showing Portrait of Sir James Dalton (the Amanuensis) and Smybert's Portrait of Himself at Extreme Left) Holding Scroll.

find him buying a house and lot on the north side of High Street in Philadelphia, where he lived until his death twenty years later.*

Only four years after Hesselius, in 1715, John Watson, a Scotch portrait painter came to New Jersey, settling in Perth Amboy, which was then the seat of local government and a place of commercial importance. In a picturesque situation, over-looking the sea, he built a home, with a smaller building adjoining for "his painting and picture house." This was a gallery and studio combined, for on his return from a visit to Europe

Watson brought over a fairly large collection of paintings, which, with his own works, formed the first private art gallery in the country. The room had wooden inner shutters, upon which were painted heads of ancient kings and queens; its unique interior and contents made it seem a veritable magician's work-shop to the people of the countryside, who had never had an opportunity to see either paintings or the means for producing them. Watson's very easel, colors and brushes were objects of curiosity and awe.

Adding money-lending to his occupation, this canny Scot became very well-to-do, and lived unmarried to the age of eighty-three. Soon after his burial in the graveyard of the old brick church at Perth Amboy,

*For ten years or more before his death, Gustavus Hesselius seems to have been also a builder of organs,—the first in the colonies and ante-dating the Boston maker by fifteen years.

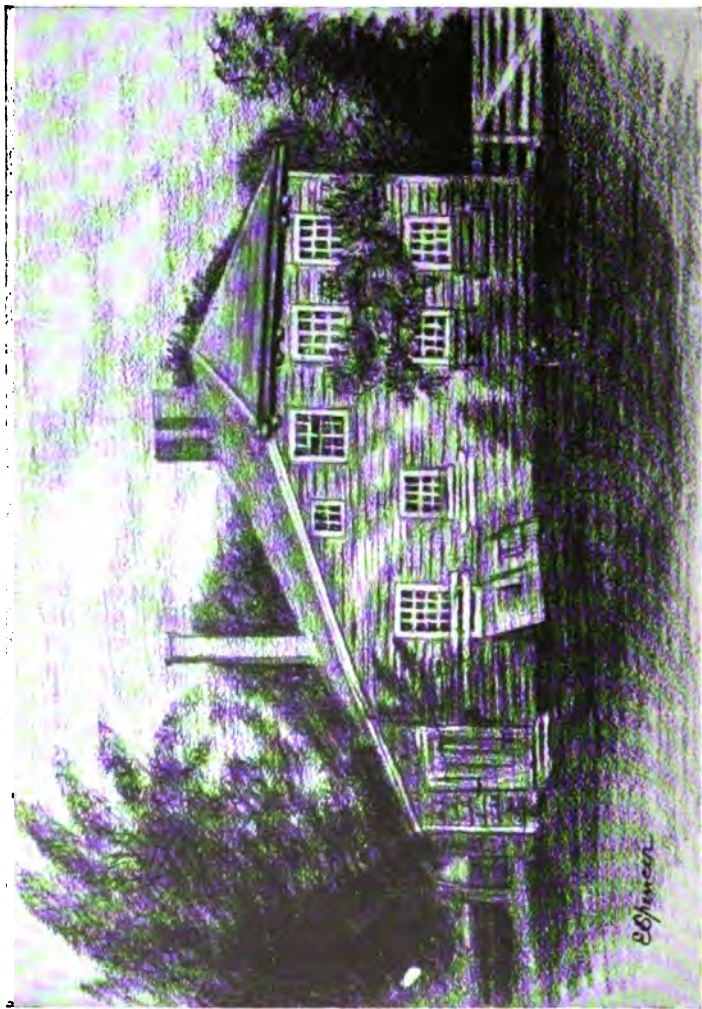
in 1768, came the first rumblings of war-thunder, and the nephew who was his heir fled to Europe, leaving the deserted studio to the mercy of the undisciplined militia, under General Mercer, who are said to have enjoyed their facetious destruction of the royal effigies among the pictures. At any rate, the place was rifled, and we are left to surmise what interesting, possibly priceless, treasures were wantonly dispersed. Watson's own work seems to have been quite local. None of it remains, or if so is unidentified.

The last of this trio, John Smybert, arrived more than a decade later, and exerted a much wider influence than either of the others. His coming was due to that remarkable man, Bishop George Berkeley, whose brilliancy of intellect, purity of life, and generosity of soul render us proud to record his too brief connection with our colonial era. He was an Irish clergyman of the Church of England, celebrated for his philosophical writings; and he had conceived the idea of founding in America a university which should diffuse religious, scientific, and literary culture all over the British possessions. Though then holding the richest church appointment in Ireland, as Dean of Derry, he decided to resign all his prospects of wealth and fame in order to carry this noble plan into effect.

Bermuda was the situation chosen, and finally securing a



Dean Berkeley. Detail from Berkeley Group.



"Whitehall," the House at Newport, R. I., in Which Bishop Berkeley Lived While in America.
Smybert's Group Picture Was Painted Here in 1731.

charter from the crown, he persuaded his friend, John Smybert, a Scotch painter who had traveled through Italy with him, to accompany him now as Professor of Fine Arts for the new university.

Smybert, who was forty-four years of age, had been born in Edinburgh, studied in London, and afterward spent three years in Italy. A gentle, sensitive man, disliking court intrigue, he welcomed the thought of pleasant surroundings, quiet days and a comfortable living, in the independence of the New World. We can imagine with what high hopes they embarked, in September, 1728, and after more than four months on the ocean, landed in January at Newport, Rhode Island, where Berkeley decided to make temporary headquarters. But the following year brought a sudden end to all his plans. The money appropriated for the institution, by Parliament, was seized by the premier, Sir Robert Walpole, to pay the marriage portion of the Princess Royal, and Berkeley's long-cherished, altruistic project perished through an unscrupulous intrigue. Deeply disappointed and chagrined, he returned to Ireland, after a stay in Newport of nearly three years; deeding the house and farm he had bought to Yale College.*

Smybert remained in America, and marrying a wealthy widow of Boston, lived there until his death in 1751. (His son, Nathaniel, developed decided artistic gifts, but died at twenty-two). During his quarter of a century of painting here, the industry and talent of the man have made us his debtors, as he has left us the best portraits extant of his contemporaries, among the magistrates and divines, belles and beaux, of New England and New York. When he died, West was twelve, and Copley thirteen years of

*The income from "Whitehall" and the farm was to be used each year to aid the three Yale students standing highest in Latin and Greek.

Berkel y was afterward made Bishop of Cloyne, and died, two years after Smybert, at Oxford, where he is buried in the Cathedral Church.



Mr. and Mrs. Ralph Izard, by J. S. Copley. In Musium of Fine Arts, Boston.

age; there was no one in New England throughout his lifetime who approached him in experience.

The most important of Smybert's pictures is his "Family of Dean Berkeley," now at Yale. Making the sketches for it beguiled the long months at sea, and it was finally painted, in 1731, at "Whitehall," Berkeley's comfortable home at Newport. Though the altar-piece painted ten years earlier by Hesselius included several figures, Smybert's work, so far as we know, was the first group-picture of its kind painted in America. Its interest is heightened by the portrait of the artist, at the extreme left; he is standing against a pillar, and holding a scroll.*

At the time of John Smybert's death in 1751, the colonies had emerged from earlier deprivations into an era of prosperity. They had not only gained a foothold,—they "possessed the land," for the Indian was no longer a constant menace, and the forests no longer impassable. The log-huts, and the military homes built for protection against the savages, had been succeeded by those dignified colonial mansions which, in their fine simplicity, stateliness and beauty, explain why no other style of domestic architecture, in any country, has been written of so fully or so enthusiastically. The flourishing trade with the East and West Indies, Spain, and Portugal, resulting from our marketable products and splendid harbors, brought swiftly increasing wealth to all the seaboard cities. Indeed, as early as 1701, a rhymester at Plymouth, complaining that "our churches are too genteel," declared

"Parsons grow trim and trigg,
With wealth, wine, and wigg";

*The picture measures six by nine feet; and includes the members of the Dean's traveling party,—his official "family" or household. Berkeley, wearing his black robe and ministerial bands, stands at the right; his hand rests on a copy of his favorite author, Plato, and he is dictating his own famous book, the "Minute Philosopher," which he wrote while at Newport. Seated at the opposite end of the table is Sir James Dalton, taking the dictation (a fine head). Back of them are Mrs. Berkeley, holding the baby born at Newport; a Mr. Moffat of that town; Miss Hancock, Mr. James, and Smybert.



Samuel Adams, by J. S. Copley. In Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.



Joseph Warren, by J. S. Copley. Detail of Portrait in Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.



Hagar and Ishmael, by Benjamin West. In Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

while fifty years later, in Maryland, bachelors, light wines, and billiard tables were taxed to pay for the French war!

Education was provided for, and commerce with foreign ports broadened the colonists' outlook. A growing sense of national importance, of permanency, of ease and affluence, had its effect upon painting, and made the twenty-five years prior to the Revolution the most active of the period. It had become the fashion to sit for one's portrait, and a large number of limners were at work,—although the Dutch in New York had not developed any artistic ability,

and their portraits were almost all by European artists, while foreigners were also employed to paint the fashionable Virginians when they visited the mother country. Most of the flower of the Old Dominion sat to the men in vogue in England,—first to Van Dyck, later to Lely and Kneller, after that to Sir Joshua Reynolds. Yet a little group of excellent portraitists was kept busy here, including Copley, most of whose best work was done before he went to England.



Ralph Inman, by J. S. Copley.
Pastel.

John Hesselius, (1728-1778) the son of Gustavus, was living in Philadelphia, and painting the portraits that may still be seen in various homes of Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. Delightful ones of his wife and children are owned in Baltimore. John Woolaston, from England, was another painter of good portraits in the middle and southern colonies, especially Virginia; he drew Martha Custis before she became Mrs. Washington. And in the Carolinas, Jeremiah Theus (or Thews) spent more than thirty years drawing the lovely women and brave men of that region. He was one of three brothers who came to



Lady Pepperell and Her Sister, by Blackburn. In Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



James Otis, by J. B. Blackburn.

Charleston, from Switzerland, in 1739, and he died there in 1774, leaving a substantial fortune. A man of fine character, as well as talent, Theus seems to have been an honor to his calling. He has left us some interesting portraits, in a style so like that of Copley, especially in its skilful imitation of silks, satins, and jewels, as doubtless to have given rise to the erroneous idea once prevalent that the Boston artist painted in all of the thirteen colonies!

It is tantalizing to know so little of many of the men painting at this time,—often merely their names, or what we can deduce from their pictures. One of more than ordinary attraction was Jonathan B. Blackburn, whose portrait of James Otis is particularly simple and vivid. In all his work he seems to capture the essential characteristics of pose and expression. Yet we can discover only that he came to New England probably some years before Smybert's death, and stayed about two decades, drawing the most distinguished people of the day.

Of our earliest native painters, probably the Philadelphian, James Claypoole, born in 1720, was the first. He appears to have abandoned art for public office,—serving as High Sheriff of Philadelphia during the Revolution. None of his works remain, but we must assume that he had knowledge and ability, from the admirable instruction he gave his nephew, Matthew Pratt, who has left us much that is interesting. We owe the earliest authentic portrait of Franklin to Pratt's brush, as well as those of Benjamin West and his wife in youth, to be seen at the Pennsylvania Academy. At thirty years of age, (in 1764) he went to London, and at West's wedding gave away the bride, who was his cousin by marriage. Remaining there some time, he became his young countryman's first American pupil; and his picture called "The American School," now in the Metropolitan Museum, which shows the interior of West's studio, so hospitable to budding artists, is of exceptional interest for its portraits of West, Pratt himself, and three other students. It is remarkably well done, too,—the ar-



Venus, Mars, and Vulcan, by J. S. Copley. In Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.



Watson and the Shark, by J. S. Copley. In Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.



The Adrian Hope Family, by Benjamin West. In Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.



Mrs. Richard Derby, by J. S. Copley. In Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

rangement of the figures, the color, and the detail, are worthy of attention. Pratt also painted in Ireland; and in 1772 in New York, where he made the portrait of Cadwalader Colden still hanging in the Chamber of Commerce. Though he lived till 1805, his serious work all antedates the Revolution.

Robert Feke, however, is the first painter of American birth, possessing any skill, whose works remain to us. He was born in 1725, at Oyster Bay, Long Island, of Quaker stock,—(the name is sometimes spelled “Feake”). There seems no reason to discredit the tradition that, when quite a young boy, he offended his father by becoming a Baptist, and afterward ran away to sea, from Newport, where they were living. He was taken prisoner in a fracas with a Spanish ship, and carried to Spain, where he gained the money to get back to America by painting crude portraits. It is not improbable that he saw and studied the work of Spanish masters; indeed his later work has that look. He lived to be only forty-four, and died at Bermuda.

Feke was painting while Smybert was alive; he did excellent work before he was twenty-five. But probably not more than twelve of his pictures exist. That of Governor Wanton’s lovely wife is in Newport; and a fine one of the beautiful Mrs. Willing, painted in 1746, is in Philadelphia,—a clever production for twenty-one years! Another of his finest is that of James Bowdoin, the founder of Bowdoin College, which hangs in the college gallery. When it was painted in 1748, Bowdoin was just of age, and Feke only two years older; the young face is very earnest, and the long embroidered satin waistcoat is carefully given the very gleam of the original fabric. Fabric-painting was Feke’s special delight, and he equals Theus and Copley in his treatment of the satins, velvets, and brocades of the day.

The highest development of Colonial painting, however, was reached during these last two decades before the Revolution, in the work of Benjamin West and John Singleton

Copley, two artists whose notable success abroad won them wide reputation, and whose names are now the only ones of this period familiar to the general public. West's influence upon our art lay largely in his teaching, and was exerted in Europe, where he went at twenty-two; Copley remained here until he was nearly forty, doing his most valuable work before he left America.

Benjamin West's art is less intimately related to American life than is Copley's; and only his earliest efforts properly belong to our colonial era. He was born in 1738, at Springfield, Pennsylvania, of English Quaker parentage, a host of "infant prodigy" tales being connected with his birth and childhood. At seven years he began to draw, then attempted portraits with crude colors procured from the friendly Indians, and finally won his parents to approval of the artistic vocation which fired his young Quaker soul. At last he had the tremendous experience, for an American art student, of a journey to Italy, and was the first of our painters to study in Rome. From there he went to London, entering, at twenty-five, upon a phenomenal career, of more than half a century, which belongs to the story of our Revolutionary art and will be described in that connection.

Copley, born in Boston of Irish parents,* was almost as precocious as West, and his youthful work was certainly better. This may have been due to the most significant event of his childhood,—his mother's second marriage; for his step-father was Peter Pelham, the earliest engraver in Boston, a portrait-painter, and an intimate friend of John Smybert, both men dying in the same year. Copley was eleven when the marriage occurred, in 1748, and Pelham's three years of teaching and example probably determined the boy's future. At fourteen he painted the famous little picture of his half-brother, called "The Boy with the Squir-

*His parents were well educated and accomplished young Irish people of small means; they came to Boston in 1736, and the husband died in the West Indies about the time of his son's birth. The many Irish then coming to America had formed the "Charitable Irish Society," which helped the young mother; and one of its founders, Peter Pelham, afterward married her.

rel;” while at seventeen he bravely essayed more difficult flights in his “Venus, Mars and Vulcan,” which, though immature and even amusing, is a remarkable performance under the circumstances.

The next ten years were absorbed in untiring efforts to improve. Then one or two of his pictures sent to London for exhibition caused West to correspond with him, and generously urge his coming to England. But Copley hesitated to leave his successful life in Boston, where his brush was in constant demand;* a little later he married, and not until 1774 did he decide to attempt Europe. He spent the summer in London and the following winter in Rome, his only portraits painted in the latter city being those of Mr. and Mrs. Izard of Charleston, S. C., form one of his most interesting canvases.

Returning to London from his travels, he found his wife and children just arrived from America; and they settled into that peaceful, busy life of court favor, family happiness, and stately hospitality which lasted until his death in 1815. In the little “painting-room” off his great studio, most of his days were passed in contented work. His industry, his devotion to his family, his pride in the importance and the true greatness of art, were his dominant characteristics.

Copley’s extreme sincerity is perhaps his most important artistic trait. Even his earliest portraits, though often stiffly posed and hard in outline, bring the sitters vividly before us; and when he has mastered his means of expres-

*The lovely Boston girl whom he married was Copley’s delight and ideal throughout their long life together. He considered her the most beautiful woman in America, and she appears in many of his compositions. They lived on Beacon Hill (owning an eleven-acre “farm” there which Copley greatly enjoyed) in much elegance and luxury. Mrs. Copley’s father was Richard Clarke, the wealthy Tory merchant and agent of the East India Company, whose tea was later thrown over-board by the “Mohawks” to brew the famous “Tea-Party.”

Boston Mrs Elizabeth Cummings to Jas. S. Copley Dr

1769 To her own portrait 3/4 cloth at 7 Guis - £ 9. 16. 0.
 To Mrs Maguarters Dr - - - - - 9. 16. 0
 To Mrs Maguarters Dr - - - - - 9. 16. 0
 1770 - - To two Black Frames 22 1/2 - - - - - £ 2. 8. 0
£ 31. 16. 0

Rec The contents in full

John Singleton Copley

Bill for Three Portraits, Written and Received by John Singleton Copley in 1770. Amount 31 Pounds and 16 Shillings.

sion, the canvases contain the very essence of colonial life. In that age of elaborate costume, when men as well as women

"studied after nyce array,
And made greet cost in clothing,"

the conscientious painting of satins, laces, and damasks, of carved furniture and other rich accessories was considered a necessity;* and the Izard portrait shows how far Copley carried this wealth of detail beyond his predecessors. He loved beautiful fabrics and the picturesque possibilities of dress. More characteristic, however, is his appreciation his sitters' individualities, especially as shown in the hands, which are painted with astonishing truth. The lovely hand and arm of young Mrs. Derby,† Mrs. Izard's delicate fingers, the aged hands of Mrs. Relief Gill at eighty, the virile hand of Samuel Adams, and all the rest,—each is distinctive and individual.

At his best he has both ease and charm, as in his masterpiece of portraiture the "Family Picture," which includes his wife, himself, the children, and his dignified father-in-law. And it is such delightful, intimate pictures as this, of which there are many in America, that constitute Copley's real hold upon fame. The work he did in London shows immediate improvement in technique; it is more skillful, more facile, more glowing in color. His "Death of Chatham" in the National Gallery is a very fine work indeed, as are others of that period. But the faithful, sincere portraits painted in America are peculiarly his own, and of

*Even the children's portraits of the period show the ornate dress of their elders, in miniature; like that of Abraham de Peyster's twin daughters, painted in 1729, at five years of age in long red velvet trains! Wigs were especially characteristic of the early portraits, (despite certain ministers who called them "Horrid Bushes of Vanity,") but as the Revolution approached they grew smaller, until finally they gave way to the natural hair, powdered and tied in a queue as in many of Copley's pictures.

†Mrs. Richard Derby, of Salem, Mass., whose portrait is reproduced here, was that charming Martha Coffin who was a school-mate at Annapolis of Elizabeth Bordley and Nellie Custis. This much-toasted trio spent frequent vacations at Mt. Vernon, and their intimacy lasted all their lives.

far greater value as embodying the time and the people in a way that no one else could equal.

He is the most significant painter of our colonial epoch; the first native American to do work of such fine quality without European teaching or travel. When he left the country, the Revolution was imminent, new aims and ideals were making themselves felt, and a new generation of painters growing up; but his influence remained and his insistence upon the dignity and nobility of art produced a lasting effect.

ACCESSIBLE PAINTINGS OF THE PERIOD.

For very early works, we must go to Harvard Memorial Hall, Yale University, Bowdoin College, various historical societies, such as Pilgrim Hall, Plymouth (has a few); the Essex Institute, Salem, Mass.; the Old State House, the Massachusetts Historical Society, and the Historical Museum, Boston; the Pennsylvania Historical Society, Philadelphia; the American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Mass., (much of interest).

Among the public galleries, the richest in early work is the Boston Museum of Fine Arts; the "Allston Room" there contains examples of Smybert, Blackburn, West, Copley, and others. The Pennsylvania Academy and the Metropolitan Museum have only two or three examples antedating the Revolution. The Walker Art Gallery at Bowdoin College contains a number of fine early works. The National Gallery, and the National Portrait Gallery, in London have some interesting examples.

Smybert, (also spelled Smibert). National Portrait Gallery, London, England, (portrait of Dean Berkeley, painted just before he came to America; seated, wearing a black gown and cap); Yale, ("Berkeley Family"); Harvard; Boston Museum of Fine Arts; Massachusetts Historical Society. In the Redwood Library, Newport, R. I., are three *copies* from his works.

Feke, (also spelled Feake.) Redwood Library, Newport, ("Mrs. Joseph Wanton"); Bowdoin College, ("James Bowdoin.")

Pratt's accessible works are mentioned in the body of the text.

The works of Gustavus and John *Hesselius*, *Woolaston*, *Thens*, *Blackburn* and others, are almost all inaccessible to the general public, in the old homes of the country where their portraits are cherished. There are many of Blackburn's canvases in New England and New York; the other men have left much in Philadelphia and the Southern States. In the National Portrait Gallery, London, is a picture by John *Woolaston* of George Whitefield, the Methodist preacher and friend of the Wesleys, who died during his seventh visit to America.

West's works appear in the next article.

Copley. The Boston Museum of Fine Arts owns the only large gallery collection, nearly twenty fine examples, which include portraits of both men and women; his early allegorical group, ("Venus,

Mars and Vulcan,"); the composition called "Watson and the Shark,"* which showed his skill in arranging a complicated episode before any of his historical pictures had been painted; and the Izard picture, showing his treatment of fabrics and ornamental detail. His portrait-masterpiece, the "Copley Family Picture" hangs here. In the Athenaeum, at Hartford, Conn., is one of his finest portraits, that of Mrs. Ford, which equals anything of the kind in America. A portrait of himself is owned by the New York Historical Society. The "Boy with the Squirrel" is owned in Boston; and of course the great body of his work, though gradually a small part is finding its way into the museums, remains in the families for which it was painted. Two splendid portraits by Copley are in the National Portrait Gallery, London; and the National Gallery has "The Death of the Earl of Chatham," "The Death of Major Pierson," "The Siege and Relief of Gibraltar," and two monochrome sketches.

*This picture was suggested by a story told Copley on his voyage to England by a man named Watson, whose leg a shark had bitten off when he was a boy. The occurrence took place off Havana, Cuba, and the painter has followed the vivid description Watson gave him, showing Morro Castle in the distance.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Almost nothing has been written about the painters of this period, except West and Copley. William Dunlap's "History of the Rise and Progress of the Arts of Design in the United States," written in 1834, contains much interesting, though sometimes incorrect data; but it has long been out of print and copies are not easily accessible. Tuckerman's "Book of the Artists" gives much the same information, and is also out of print. In a recent "History of American Painting," Samuel Isham devotes considerable space to colonial art; and there are two "Lives of John Singleton Copley," one by A. F. Perkins, (Boston, 1873), the other by Mrs. Martha Babcock Amory, (Boston, 1884). The latter devotes most of her book to Copley's son, Baron Lyndhurst, three times Lord Chancellor of England, but it is of interest for the details of the painter's family life and for many old letters.

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON REQUIRED READING WILL BE FOUND IN ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for October.

Edward Everett Hale

To one who asked Dr. Hale how he had managed to be so optimistic all his life, he replied that he had always believed in God, always loved God, always felt God to be a kind Father who would show him his duty day by day and help him to do that duty; and he had gone on doing the next thing at hand, trusting in God, never finding him wanting.

This whole hearted devotion of his rare talents to the immediate needs about him explains in some measure the extraordinary fruitfulness of Dr. Hale's career. Many of the things which seemed next at hand were fundamental, so that his attempt to meet the opportunity straightway widened out beyond the narrow bounds of a city parish and supplied a universal need. Such was the influence of his "Man Without a Country," that most original and effective appeal to patriotism, written in the white-hot days of civil war, but now one of the classics of our literature. Then when the urgency of some appeal to the sense of brotherhood touched him closely in his daily work among all sorts of men, there followed the stirring little story "Ten Times One is Ten," with its outcome in the famous "Lend-a-Hand" mottoes which drew hundreds and thousands of young people into clubs for the expression of Christian altruism. Few who have read "In His Name" will forget the quaint mixture of legend and truth by which Dr. Hale set forth with exquisite art the Christ ideal as it might be lived out among men, and made the little volume with its significant design—the maltese cross—a welcome guest in thousands of homes.

These three world-famous stories represent but a small share of Dr. Hale's literary and philanthropic activities. He has been called the Nestor of the Peace Movement in America, for it is true that with the far-seeing vision of the idealist he predicted changes of attitude among the nations, which the diplomats who repudiated such changes as impossible, lived to see realized. The country has honored itself in bringing Dr. Hale to the Senate as its chaplain, for he is a citizen not alone of the United States but of that larger world which counts all men as brothers.

John Muir.

ADDICTED to "Wanderlust" from earliest boyhood the famous nature student, naturalist and geologist, John Muir, has given to the scientific world "the stuff to put in books," as he once said when tendered a professorship in one of the great universities. He did not fancy teaching from other men's knowledge; he preferred to teach the teachers, and so declined the proffer. The field, the forest, the river, the dale, the lowland and the mountain peak are pages that John Muir has studied in the book of nature. His early days were spent tramping over the world. He went to the University of Wisconsin and from the halls of learning plunged into the western forests. His father was a farmer, who emigrated from Scotland to the backwoods of Wisconsin in 1849, but his son did not take kindly to the phase of nature study found in planting corn and potatoes in newly cleared soil. His mind was ingenious and with a jackknife he carved out a clock that recorded the moon's phases. This, and other novelties, shown at a state fair, attracted to him friends who prevailed upon him to go to college. But Muir's eyes were turned skyward and the far-off peaks of the Sierras fascinated him. He tramped to the south, embarked on a coaster to Colon, crossed the Isthmus, sailed to San Francisco and set out for the snow capped Sierra Nevadas, earning his way by various odd jobs of work in saw mills and on farms. Alaska beckoned him on and Muir was practically the first white man to traverse the glaciers of that then no-man's-land. Muir's Glacier, perhaps the grandest in Alaska, is an enduring monument to his daring exploration.

John Muir's work as a nature student and scientist is unique. Full of the poetic love of nature he endowed his exploits and discoveries with romantic interest. His heart responds to the call of the wild and his pen sings in the praises of the majesty of nature. He has devoted his pen to the protection of forest and valley. Congress res-

ponded to his appeal and preserved the grandeur of the Yosemite to future generations. To Muir nature has a "visible spirit," and the mountains have "countenances." The rocks of the deep canons talk to him and he reads their secrets. To science and literature he has contributed important work. He labored incessantly for the preservation of forests and parks. His published works on Alaska, Russia, Siberia, Manchuria, India, Australia, New Zealand, and the Arctic regions are authoritative. Muir lives simply in a comfortable picturesque house in the San Joaquin Valley at the foot of the Sierras, in California, his two daughters his constant companions. In 1880 he married Louise Strentzel, daughter of a Polish refugee. The great naturalist is just under seventy years of age and is wiry and active and can climb a mountain and tramp over the hills at a pace that would fatigue a much younger man. His last trip afar was with the Harriman expedition to Alaska in 1899. He was for some years connected with the Geodetic Survey, in Nevada and Utah.



Some Great American Scientists

I. Asa Gray.

By Charles Reid Barnes

Professor of Plant Physiology in the University of Chicago.

A SMALL man with a kindly face framed in gray, his dark eyes twinkling in humor or penetrating in earnestness, used to bustle about the library and herbarium rooms in the Botanical Garden at Cambridge. When his cheery whistle and rapid step were no more heard, the rooms seemed desolate indeed, and those from whose lives he passed felt not only the loss of a great man of science but above all the loss of a great companion and a real friend.

The life of Asa Gray (1810-1888) marked an era in the development of botany in America. Before his day many collections of living and dried plants had been sent to the gardens and herbaria of Europe. These were mostly from the eastern seaboard, though a few came from the western coast. But toward the middle of the last century the extension of settlements in the great Mississippi valley and the overland explorations westward brought to notice hosts of new plants to be named and pigeon-holed with their known relatives as the first step toward their utilization or their further study. All botanists, the world over, were doing this; it was indispensable; and so necessity determined the lines along which Asa Gray should work if he would study plants. But how did he become a botanist at all?

Gray's childhood was scarcely different from that of hundreds, who, in the sparsely settled valleys of New York, early shared in the tasks of the farm or the mill. His father, who lived at Sauquoit, near Utica, had been apprenticed to a tanner and currier, and he seems to have been still working at his trade when this eldest child was born, for the little house which was his home stood on the tannery premises and had once been a shoe-shop. Shortly

after his birth his parents removed to Paris Furnace—a little settlement about a smelting furnace which long ago disappeared—where his father established a tannery. Here one of the tasks of the small boy was to feed the bark-mill and drive the old horse that turned it—"a lonely and monotonous occupation," he said of it. Withal he had schooling. It began at the age of three; at six or seven he was a champion speller in the "matches" that enlivened the district school. Later he attended for a year or two a "select" school at Sauquoit, and when nearly twelve he was sent to the grammar school at Clinton.

To the formal instruction of the schools he added an eager interest in books. As messenger for a small circulating library, he took toll of the books, lying by the roadside on his round from house to house. Being found one day reading when he should have been hoeing a patch of corn, he elected to read all day in the hot sun rather than finish his task and read in comfort—a choice which convinced his father that while he might make a scholar he never would make a farmer.

After two years at Clinton he went to Fairfield Academy, where he might have been prepared for college. But his father, who had turned his attention to farming and was buying up land, wished him to begin at once the study of medicine, and when he was barely sixteen he entered the "College of Medicine and Surgery of the Western District of New York," located at Fairfield, then the most important medical college in the country. Its courses in chemistry he had attended the year before while he was in the Academy, and thus he had his first instruction in science from Dr. James Hadley, the grandfather of the president of Yale University. The annual sessions of the medical school were very short, the students devoting half the year to study and observation with preceptors. The spring and summer of 1827 Gray spent with Dr. Priest of Sauquoit, returning in the autumn to Fairfield.

From that winter dates his interest in plants, awakened

by reading the article on Botany in Brewster's Edinburgh Encyclopedia. He bought Eaton's Manual and sallied forth early, found the spring-beauty in bloom, and learned its name by the help of the keys, little dreaming how many thousand young Americans in later days would get their first knowledge of plants from the books he should prepare.

From this time on, young Gray's leisure was devoted to the study of plants, and his rides about the country around Bridgewater with Dr. Trowbridge, who for three years was his preceptor, gave him abundant opportunity to observe and collect. In 1830, when he went to New York commissioned to buy medical books for Dr. Trowbridge, he carried with him a bundle of plants and a letter of introduction to Dr. John Torrey, then the leading American botanist. He did not meet him, but left the package, and in the winter Dr. Torrey wrote, naming the plants. Thus began a correspondence and collaboration which was only interrupted by Torrey's death in 1873. In the spring of 1831, several months before he was twenty-one, Gray received his M. D. It was destined to give him a title, but not to initiate a career.

The nature of that career was forecast by the fact that almost immediately upon his graduation he began to give lectures in botany as a substitute for Dr. Beck; he was at once appointed instructor in chemistry, mineralogy, and botany in a private school in Utica; he gave a six-weeks' course of lectures before the medical college in the early summer of 1832; and a little later he gave a course in mineralogy and botany at Hamilton College. Thus his predilection showed itself; and it is noteworthy that he spent his vacations and his money in excursions to various parts of New York and New Jersey for the purpose of collecting minerals and plants. His interest in chemistry and mineralogy was considerable; indeed his first scientific paper (1834), was on new mineral localities in northern New York; and minerals of his early collection are still in the Harvard museum.

To the *American Journal of Science*, in which this paper was published, he continued to contribute for over fifty years, for thirty-five of them as associate editor. Through his hands there passed almost all the botanical work issued in this period, and of it he wrote critical notices, distributing praise with discrimination and censure with kindness. Herein, too, he published for many years an annual necrology, evaluating labors of those botanists who had passed away within the year. None of his many-sided works shows more clearly than these reviews and biographies the discernment of a penetrating intellect and the charity of a kindly heart.

In the autumn of 1834, Gray, on furlough, became Dr. Torrey's assistant in chemistry in the medical college at New York. He lived with the Torreys, and Mrs. Torrey's sane, sweet, Christian character was a wholesome and permanent influence in the life of the young man. All his spare time was devoted to the herbarium. The grasses and sedges, two particularly difficult groups, had long attracted him, and he issued this winter sets of one hundred named specimens, which still exist in the larger herbaria of the world. In December, 1834, he read his first botanical paper, a monograph of certain sedges, before the New York Lyceum of Natural History.

In February or March he returned to school work at Utica, but spent the summer with his parents and in collecting, with the expectation of returning to New York in the fall. To this end he had resigned from the school; but the autumn brought a letter from Dr. Torrey saying that the prospects of the medical college were so poor that he could not afford an assistant. Nevertheless Gray went to New York and fortunately was appointed curator of the collections of the New York Lyceum.

As his duties were light, he assisted Torrey as he had opportunity, issued the second century of grasses, and completed the manuscript of his first book, "Elements of Botany," which he had planned and partly written the sum-

mer before. This book was the first of a series which has never been equalled in any country. Some of these texts are addressed to children, some to youths, and some to college students; each is adapted with admirable skill to its audience, and all are characterized by such lucidity of style and aptness of phraseology as is rarely combined with accuracy of statement. By these books, used by generation after generation of youths, Gray impressed himself uniquely upon every student of botany for fifty years. It is impossible that such a condition should recur, and it is fortunate that this early impress was scientifically so excellent.

In the summer of 1839, Gray was appointed botanist to a government expedition which was fitting out to explore the South Pacific; but exasperating delays and final reduction of its scope and equipment caused him to abandon the position for a professorship of natural history in the newly founded University of Michigan (1838). The institution was not ready for students and he was given leave to make a visit to Europe. Such a visit had become necessary for, in the two years of suspense, he had been actively at work with Dr. Torrey, who had invited him to undertake the joint production of a Flora of North America. Into this project Gray entered with vigor. He soon saw that they must compare certain American plants with earlier collections in various foreign herbaria, and for this purpose he must spend a year abroad.

The visit to Europe was most important to him scientifically, for it gave him the opportunity not only of studying many type specimens in European herbaria, but of coming into personal relations with almost all the foremost English and Continental botanists. In many cases the acquaintance thus begun, and renewed on subsequent visits, ripened into life-long friendship. The letters home form almost a journal*, and give in a most vivacious way his

*See Letters of Asa Gray, edited by Jane Loring Gray, 2 vols., Boston; Houghton Mifflin & Co. 1893.

first impressions of art and scenery, now become familiar to many Americans. In later years he made five visits to Europe, once in a winter between two seasons of hard work going up the Nile; but these journeys, except the last in 1887, were mainly devoted to scientific work, with only incidental relaxation.

With the knowledge gained in the course of his first journey, he took up the *Flora* with vigor upon his return in November, 1839, and the parts of the first two volumes appeared rapidly. Then came a slackening, due partly to the preoccupation of Dr. Torrey and partly to Gray's removal to Harvard. In this interval collections came pouring in from newly explored and newly acquired territory at such a rate as to make it evident that the undertaking was premature. The work ceased, therefore, with these two volumes. Thirty-six years later Dr. Gray resumed it alone. Of his "Synoptical *Flora of North America*" two volumes appeared before his death, and he was busily engaged upon the "Vitaceae" when paralysis intervened in November, 1887. So was cut short the second attempt to prepare a description of all the flowering plants of North America.

Dr. Gray never became actively a member of the faculty of the University of Michigan; for before their plans matured he was called to Harvard (1842), where he remained Fisher professor of natural history until his death. For thirty years he devoted much time to active teaching, all the while carrying on research and literary work; and the latter he continued for fifteen years after he abandoned to others the instructional duties of the professorship.

The work to which he was called at Harvard was engrossing and time consuming. The botanical garden was such in hardly more than name; he developed it into efficiency. The instruction had been of little value and no inspiration; he provided charts and material, planned his lectures with such skill and gave them with such enthusiasm as to awaken interest even outside the college. There were

almost no buildings except the residence in the Garden. Greenhouses were erected ; in 1864 the herbarium and library, which had long overflowed the house, was provided with fireproof quarters and modest income. All the while a steady stream of technical papers appeared in various journals, numberless reviews and notices were written, local scientific societies were invigorated by his contagious enthusiasm and boundless energy, addresses and lectures were delivered—all with the quiet efficiency of a capable scholar.

Gray's relations to Darwin are especially significant. On his first journey he casually met Darwin, and again in 1851. A correspondence began by inquiries from Darwin, who was then marshalling the facts for his theory of natural selection, and Gray was able to give many helpful hints. Two years before the simultaneous presentation of this theory to the Royal Society by Darwin and Wallace, Darwin wrote an outline of his theory ; and this letter successfully established Darwin's priority in the matter. Gray, with his accustomed perspicacity, saw the value of Darwin's ideas and the cogency of the reasoning. In a prompt review of the "Origin of Species" he became in America the exponent of this new form of evolution. After the fight waned his numerous essays, reviews, and discussions were brought together into a volume entitled "Darwiniana." Darwin wrote :

"I declare that you know my book as well as I do myself, and bring to the question new lines of illustration and argument in a manner that excites my astonishment and almost my envy." . . .

"As Hooker lately said in a note to me, you are, more than anyone else, the thorough master of the subject."

And it was by his thorough mastery of the subject, presented in his clear and graceful style, that Darwinism was delivered in this country from the intense and bitter opposition that well-nigh overwhelmed its doughty champion, Huxley, in England.

Doubtless no small factor in mitigation of the conflict

here was Gray's well-known religious position. This he himself describes in these terms:*

"I am scientifically and in my own fashion a Darwinian, philosophically a convinced theist, and religiously an acceptor of the creed 'commonly called the Nicene' as the exponent of the Christian faith."

If a man so anchored philosophically and religiously could be scientifically a Darwinian, Darwinism might safely be examined. And lo, it has become well-nigh as valuable to theology as to biology!

A man engrossed in research, busy with teaching, burdened with innumerable demands which insidiously steal away his precious hours, may well be forgiven if he seeks to withdraw himself. This Gray never did. To his personal friends and scientific colleagues he was an enthusiastic guide and counselor, though at the same time an unrelenting critic. Rothrock relates that he rewrote his first scientific paper "at least six times. . . . But my critic was merciless. I mentally resolved each time that I would not rewrite it; but I did rewrite it; and I was obliged to continue doing so until he thought it might be allowed to pass. . . . It was the most helpful lesson I ever received in the art of putting things."

Many who had but slight claim upon his time or attention received help in generous measure; and often not the least help was the keen criticism that stimulates but does not discourage.

Gray's unselfish goodness and helpfulness to students and acquaintances alike, endeared him to a wide circle. When on the occasion of his seventy-fifth birthday it was suggested by letter to American botanists that they unite in some testimonial of affectionate regard, gifts poured in upon the committee. "In token of the universal esteem of American botanists," there was fashioned a silver vase, wrought with characteristic American plants, and most prominent among them the plants associated particularly with his name.

* Preface to *Darwiniana*.

So faithfully did the artist execute his task, that, kneeling before the vase, Dr. Gray exclaimed over the accuracy of the representation, and named the various plants as readily as their originals. A silver salver, "bearing the greetings of one hundred and eighty botanists of North America to Asa Gray on his seventy-fifth birthday, November 18, 1885," accompanied the vase.

"Dr. Gray was exceedingly touched and delighted, as well as overwhelmed with surprise. And the day, with pleasant calls and congratulations from friends and neighbors, gifts of flowers with warm and kindly notes, was made a memorable one indeed."*

An official letter of congratulation came from the Senate of the University of Michigan, for whose library he had made in Europe the first purchases, nearly fifty years before.

Lowell wrote:

"Just Fate, prolong his life, well spent,
Whose indefatigable hours,
Have been as gaily innocent
And fragrant as his flowers."

For forty years his triumphs and trials were shared by Mrs. Gray, to whom as Jane Loring, daughter of a well-known Boston lawyer, he was married in 1848. They had no children; but upon those of their relatives and neighbors they showered such love and interest as made a visit to the Garden House a day to be remembered. Christmas festivities were nowhere more joyous than there; and Dr. Gray made himself a child among the children—a better "bear" even than the hugest "Teddy bear" of today.

The last journey to Europe was, with all its sadness of obvious farewells, something of a triumphal march. At the Manchester meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, there was a notable gathering of botanists who united to do him honor. The universities of Edinburgh, Oxford, and Cambridge all conferred upon him

*Letters, p. 776.

honorary degrees. Dr. Sandys, of Cambridge, in eloquent Latin, presented him for the degree thus:

"And now we are glad to come to the Harvard professor of natural history, facile princeps of trans-Atlantic botanists. Within the period of fifty years, how many books has he written about his fairest science; how rich in learning, how admirable in style! How many times has he crossed the ocean that he might more carefully study European herbaria, and better know the leading men in his own department! In examining, reviewing, and sometimes gracefully correcting the labors of others, what a shrewd, honest, and urbane critic has he proved himself to be! How cheerfully, many years ago, among his own western countrymen was he the first of all to greet the rising sun of our own Darwin, believing his theory of the origin of various forms in a Deity who was created and governs all things! God grant that it may be allowed such a man at length to carry to a happy completion that great work, which he long ago began, of more accurately describing the flora of North America! Meanwhile, this man who has so long adorned his fair science by his labors and his life, even unto a hoary age, 'bearing,' as our poet says, 'the white blossom of a blameless life,' him, I say, we gladly crown, at least with these flowerets of praise, with this corolla of honor. For many, many years may Asa Gray, the venerable priest of Flora, render more illustrious this academic crown."

But it was not so to be. Scarcely had he returned and taken up as vigorously as ever his work on the Flora, when, in late November, paralysis put an end to his labors. He lingered until January 30, 1888. A simple stone, bearing a cross, marks his grave in Mount Auburn.



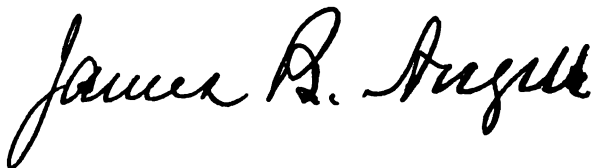
**Greeting from President Angell of the University
of Michigan.**

Dr. George E. Vincent,
President of
Chautauqua Institution.

Dear Sir:

Will you allow me through you to send a word of greeting to the Chautauqua readers and students? We who are at work in colleges and universities look with the deepest interest and warmest sympathy on the great company of earnest men and women who are employing the hours they can rescue from the demands of busy lives to carry on the intellectual work for which they receive inspiration and guidance from Chautauqua. The uplift and illumination which they thus receive will more than reward them for the self-denying efforts which they make, and will cheer the hearts of those who like you are devoting yourselves to their good.

Yours truly,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "James R. Angell". The signature is written in dark ink and is positioned below the typed name "James R. Angell".

The Story of An Immigrant's Experience.

By Philip Davis

Civic Service House, Boston.

I have been asked to write a personal narrative of my experiences in this country — in order to show the personal or human as opposed to the sociological or statistical aspect of the one all-the-year-around question so untiringly discussed in America—the question of immigration. But in fairness to the editor and reader I must state at the very outset that I cannot promise anything more than simply a narrative of experience. Illustrious achievement such as that of the Hon. Carl Schurz or Prof. Louis Agassiz — two immigrants who became such distinguished Americans — is no part of the record of the average immigrant. “Undistinguished Americans” are we of the legions somewhat reproachfully so-called in recent literature. An undistinguished American I am, one of the millions of newcomers whose only claim to achievement lies in the phenomenal success of the country of their adoption as shown by its world-wide commerce and mammoth industries, to the up-building of which even the humblest immigrants are certainly contributing their share.

My share in this achievement has been infinitesimal; my reward infinite: not only a living but a liberal education, and liberty of both person and conscience, and—richest of all — a rare American experience! —

In fact, this country is to me and the millions of newcomers like me a macroscopic school of experience. We all live and labor here more intensely than we did on our home-platoon and the dullest of us often goes through here in his first five years of adjustment the experience of a life-time. Personally, I feel that the life I lived during all the years I spent in Russia was in contrast with

what I experienced during the six months' strike of the Philadelphia cloakmakers, for example, or during my college days at Harvard, a life of inexperience. In the deserted village where I lived, one day was like another; one year like another. Like the rest of the lads of the village I just grew and like the weeds in the jingle—

"We grew all day; we grew all night;
We grew in rain and sunshine bright,
—And there was nothing but weeds."

I realize now how little this care-free village life prepared me, in fact, how it unprepared me—for life in this seething, surging, never-resting America.

Consider my schooling. In this country I would have been compelled by law to attend school from seven to fourteen years of age at an expense to the state of several hundred dollars. And the Truant Officer would have been after me if I had not attended regularly whether I were a native American or foreign Jewish child.

In my former country — my own native country — I was doomed to ignorance because my ancestors preferred the Old Testament. There was but one school in our village, an "Uralnie Utchilishtche," so-called. The teacher was also principal of the school and priest of the church as well as tzar of the town. At any rate he exercised all the powers and prerogatives of the tzar in so far as they appertained to "Greater Moteleh." His utchilishtche was a kind of Sunday-school running through the winter season. The catechism was the principal intellectual food and the daily bill of fare. Chants and litanies were its staples. No child was ever spoiled by a sparing use of the rod! That school was not for me unless I had received baptism and wished to become a priest.

For the Hebrew children there existed another kind of school, called the "Chaider," which in turn was a sort of all-the-year-around Sabbath-school. Chaider means a "room" in Hebrew and that is all it does mean in fact. For it is never more than just a "room" where Jewish children are

being hatched as would-be Rabbis. Here the Rebi, himself a semi Rabbi, reigns supreme. In his right hand the omnipresent "Cat o' nine tails"; in his left the Bible. To know the Bible is the idea of the Chaider. The exceptional boy goes on to the study of the Talmud. One in a thousand eventually enters the "Yeshiveh" or Rabinnical seminary. The chaider-boy thus becomes a Yeshiveh-Bochur who may become either a Rabbi (if he is lucky enough to get a position) or just a "Maskil"—a kind of "silk and satin" young man with a complete Rabbinical training but without a position.

Every Russian hamlet has its quota of these Maskilim, because, of course, we can't all be Rabbis. But the chaider quite ignores this fact and prepares all the chaider-boys for the Yeshiveh quite as unconcernedly as our grammar and high schools prepare for college.

In our town, then, typical by its size and primitiveness of hundreds of other towns, I could have been educated as a priest or as a Rabbi but not as a man, not even as a man-of-letters in the most elementary sense of the phrase. There was no school to learn something about the three R's. The very Azbukah or Russian A. B. C. is not taught by the government free of charge, until one enters the army. In this country, again, one has to be a literate and either a full citizen (to join the navy), or, at least, he must have formally declared his intention of becoming a citizen before he can enter the army. The Russian government not only refuses citizenship to the Jew but allows him to grow up in ignorance, yet it compels him to "serve the Tzar" just the same, and then as a means to its own ends teaches him those things which should have been learned in school as a child.

The maintenance of the army is, by the way, one chief reason why Russia is so niggardly in spending money for the education of even her own people, let alone the stranger in her midst. Another reason lies in an apparent assumption that the ignorant subject, Jew or peasant, is less

dangerous than the educated. The confusion of Babel reigns in Russia today because the government does not even teach the language of the land. Imagine a child growing up in this country without being able to read, write or even speak English! The Russian pale is full of children in this state of ignorance. In the more isolated towns and villages the true Russian language with its rich literature is not only unknown but literally despised — so devilishly successful has the government been in poisoning the minds of a people whose motto has been "Yehee Air"—"Let there be Light!" Shut in by the Ghetto walls the people of the pale sat in mental darkness so long that they have grown to be afraid of the light. They learned by experience that the more intelligent they seemed to be the more they were suspected and watched. So they have come to regard anything printed in characters other than the Holy Tongue as a snare and a "Tref-Posul," "a thing unclean." The Holy Bible alone was safe and satisfying. My people, therefore, kept me in chaidar season after season until I knew the Bible from cover to cover and could recite its chapters by heart, forward as well as backward—an accomplishment highly ornamental but not very useful—since it fitted me for nothing in particular.

When therefore the time came to choose my life work the only course open to me was that of the much-hated middleman into whose position the government has deliberately forced half of the Jewish people. In Russia not only the closed shop but the closed town, has been in practice on racial lines from time immemorial. Land tenure and open trading are also prohibited to the Jew.

Besides, what interest is there in choosing any career against all these odds or in spite of them when one is eventually to be kidnapped, as youths were in those days, and despatched to some remote corner of the Caucasus to serve the Tzar—at that time—indefinitely. Nothing blights the hope and ambition of young Russia more than this universal dread of being called away at a time when one's

prospects are brightest. Compulsory army service is therefore to this day the chief cause of the Russian exodus. The flower of the Russian youth has no ambition to waste itself on the Siberian steppes.

In my family there were five possible candidates for the army. As none of us was at all charmed by either the brass buttons or the epaulet of the soldier, we managed to escape one by one ere we were called on. This cost us our heritage as well as our birth-right. For not only was our father compelled to sell property in order to pay three hundred rubles fine for every missing son but as runaways his children have forever forfeited the right to return to the land of their birth and visit the one place on earth most dear to them—dear because the remains of a mother so untimely called away are there interred.

At last the time came when the youngest of us, my brother and I, mere children of 15 and 14, untrained and inexperienced, equipped with nothing except life and a latent capacity for labor, had to cut our juvenile moorings and journey to the land across the waters — the "Goldenh Amerikeh."

We traveled in the company of an emigrating family as far as Warsaw, but there we separated, for they went by way of Bremen while we went by way of Hamburg. Small as we were our greatest concern was not about ourselves but in guarding what we considered the untold wealth in our possession. But no sooner did we reach Hamburg than we were relieved of both wealth and worry, the former having been neatly divided between the railroad and steamship companies.

We therefore boarded the steamer practically free from impedimenta and after a fortnight of steerage experience which no immigrant ever forgets, entered Castle Garden poor of purse but rich in resolve. For we were no "birds of passage." We came to make this country our permanent home and all the other immigrants who then

landed entered into their new inheritance, into the sweet land of liberty, in the same spirit.

It is the privilege of every newcomer to get at least a week's rest during which time he "receives" all the "landsmen" of his town who flock to hear the "news." No experience is so rare as this of the immigrant as messenger of glad words and "best regards" from sweethearts, lovers, wives, husbands, parents, and children.

The rest period over, the question "what to do?" loomed large. I was handicapped both in age and training. Had a truant officer then appeared and ordered me to school, I might have been redeemed from many years of apprenticeship and toil without meaning, which because of my inexperience and ignorance, I was subjected to. My present story might have read differently. But the child labor laws of those days allowed conditions which those of today certainly do not. Consequently though barely fourteen and illiterate, I was compelled to offer myself for hire, if, indeed, I could find some one to hire me.

I looked for him daily for six weeks until I found him—an East-Side sweater who agreed to hire me as a "basting puller" for two dollars a week. Here began years of bitter experience in the sweat shops of New York, which flourished greatly in those days. The division of labor was even then most minutely carried out. A score of "hands" handled the different parts of the coat, or rather one batch of coats: the cutter, the trimmer, the pocket maker, the lining maker, the operator, the under-presser and presser, the finisher, the busheler, and the "Boss" himself, as the owner was invariably called. The tailor, the only man who really knows how to make a coat and make it fit had no place in the sweat shop scheme. His all-around knowledge, in a sense, disqualified him. The sweat shop wanted specialists, "hands" trained nimbly for one thing. Such a specialist was the baster, for example, who "basted" all day, just basted coat and lining together that the operator might sew, that the presser might press, etc. My "specialty"

was to pull the basting out before it went to the presser, which I did "with a bare bodkin."

As the prison hides its victim so the huge piles of coats to my right and left towering above me like prison walls hid my small frame. How I labored to down my Bastille, raze its walls to the ground that I might have more elbow room, more breathing space, more light, more sun! Ant-like I labored, pulling out yards, miles of bastings, "doing" hundreds of coats in an hour. But where was the use? The next hundred came just as fast as mine went. Others worked by the task system. "Do just so much and you can go home." But basting pulling was considered so light a task that neither that nor time counted for anything. Needless to say there was no 58-hour movement for women and children in those days. The tenure of one's job—then, as now—depended on the pleasure of the Boss. And the Boss was pleased so long as we kept at it. How luring the 6 c'clock whistle seemed. But strange as it may seem that whistle which today announces the end of the longest day was to us of the sweat-shop but a second noon-hour call. Second breakfast at twelve, second lunch at six—and the overtime contest began. It was a test of endurance—especially among the piece workers. On "rush" days, so heralded on red tickets pinned to the coats (we did not know the letters but we recognized the color), we never ceased until midnight. On a pinch Saturdays and Sundays were sacrificed.

In this wild "rush" the best early days of my life in America were spent as were those of thousands of other immigrants. What added to the bitterness of this experience was the fact I afterwards learned that we immigrants were held responsible for the sweat shop system. Did we bring it with us? I found it here. How could I have been blamed for it? How can any individual be held responsible for a particular system of industry—the result of many minds—the outcome of *social* needs? Can the wage-earner be held responsible for the wage-system? As little

can the sweater or sweat shop "hand" be held responsible for the sweating system. And in any case society, which in the last analysis profits most by the new systems of industry, ought certainly to share its degree of responsibility, particularly since it lies in its power and not in the individual to modify such systems, at least to take the sting and poison out of them.

From basting-puller to half-baster to baster was then considered the natural evolution of one in my position. But I did not get along with the needle as well as I did with the bodkin. My tender flesh proved softer than the cloth. I used to come back with swollen fingers. I left the shop for some time only to return again to "be broken in" as under-pressed. I learned seam-pressing, etc., until I finally became a full-fledged presser. From basting-puller to under-presser to presser was therefore the course of my evolution, and if I may add, from sweat shop to college. For I eventually got there. It took years of preparation and saving. But at last the glad day came when I actually entered college and began living through in full maturity the golden age of school life which is the boon of youth.

College education is the goal of hundreds of immigrants toiling by day for a living and preparing at night, Chautauqua fashion—each for himself. Many of them have a European college education which they would fain bring up to American standards.

Every year adds to their numbers in the different colleges of this country. But ten times as many languish in the shops who should be in college! Why? Because a college education is exceedingly expensive: \$600 for four years tuition; \$1000 or more for room and board. Then there are clothes and books to buy and one's miscellaneous daily expenses to provide for. Two years preparation and you will readily see that to get a college education in this country is an expensive luxury—a \$2000 proposition at the very least.

And after college—what?

No soft berth awaits the immigrant student upon graduation. He either has to go back to the shop for a living or he has to commence studying anew — study a profession — again a \$3000 proposition.

I am mindful of the immense sums of money bequeathed yearly to our American colleges in the form of scholarships, and Russian Jewish students, because they need them most and naturally work hardest, perhaps win them oftenest. But scholarships are for the few and make-shifts at best. Nor has the price of scholarships ever been made public. The fortunate student who gets a scholarship as the reward of supreme effort often has to act as chief cook and bottle washer of the college for as long a time as the scholarship may last. Washing windows, white-washing rooms and cleaning black-boards are not the best forms of recreation after a hard day's study.

These things are the bittersweets of the poor student's college experience. As I dreamed all the years I spent in the shop of the day when every breadwinner, native and foreign, will possess the kind of college education which will interpret and illumine his work for himself and society, so I dreamed during the years I spent in college of the day when such college education shall also be free. The solution to my mind does not lie in more privately endowed colleges but in free state universities. Were such universities, adapted to the time and condition of the average American young man and young woman in every state in the Union, nay in every large industrial and agricultural center, were they really free without being cheap, ministering to the present instead of worshipping the past, it would soon be found that the adult immigrant, also, would flock into them as enthusiastically as the immigrant children flock to the public school.

Strangely enough, the first Breadwinners' College of this kind, opened by Dr. Thomas Davidson, in 1898, was right among the Russian Jewish immigrants of the East Side. Though only a private venture and by no means

meeting the vital industrial and economic needs of breadwinners, it is certainly blazing the way. The number of young men and women of fine character and high ideals of social service it has produced, men and women who are now leaders and teachers among their kind, has more than justified its existence.

In Boston the Breadwinners' Institute is grappling with the same problem: the better education of the adult immigrant. The Institute is the outgrowth of a school for adult immigrants under the auspices of the Civic Service House which has been in existence since 1901. It is the work of this school with which I became connected while still at Harvard, which has appealed to me as most worth while — so great is the response, especially among the latest newcomers.

Mazzini during his exile in London opened up a school for his countrymen — strangely enough on much the same plan of our Breadwinners' Institute. With touching tenderness he speaks of his work in that school. He calls it his "labor of love." One cannot get Mazzini's results without possessing his endowments, but one can understand his enthusiasm and share his delight.

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

AND he came to Nazareth where he had been brought up; and he entered, as his custom was, into the synagogue on the Sabbath day."—Luke 4:16.

"As his custom was," "where he had been brought up," he did as a man, what he had always done as a boy—he went to the house of God on the day of God. And he did this not as a rabbi but as a layman. He did this, following a custom, adopted by the family of which he was a member. Had he been a merchant, a farmer, a mechanic, a tax gatherer, an artist, he would have gone to the synagogue on the Sabbath day. It was a part of the religious program of his life.

I wish to speak of the importance of a religious program in every life—a "custom" that ensures religious fidelity, not merely loyalty to a "day" and a place and a service, not merely an enthusiasm for a "church" or a "denomination" but what is better, a surrender to God born of a reverent faith. And all this to be done by a layman—ploughboy, banker, kitchen help, carpenter, or a leader of society. I insist that every man needs a religious program for his life, embracing opinions, enthusiasms, courage, endeavors, and habits, controlling his conduct and character. All this is worth more than success in trade, political influence and social promotion. And I am not interested in the precise form of his creed, the ritual he employs, or his ecclesiastical alliances.

These are the questions I account vital: Have you real faith in God? What do you think of Christ? Does the Holy Spirit of God possess and control you? Do you love your neighbor as really as you love yourself? Is there life in your faith? Is it fruit bearing?

*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

A personal program of religious life for laymen and ministers is the demand of our age, and for the people whom we of the church call "outsiders;" for we well know that neglect does not annul obligation.

Every business and professional man, every mechanic, every farmer, every woman, every child, should first of all seek the kingdom of God and His righteousness, should light the taper of profession and let the light shine. The command is not an extravagant one: "Seek ye first the kingdom of God and his righteousness." I repeat—professing Christians should faithfully show their colors and order their daily lives according to a simple program of faith and obedience. First religion, then business. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of everything that is worth while. And this divine law applies to every living man and woman, and not merely to church members. Religion should never be accounted as of less importance than business. It is not necessary that one be always talking about it, but it is not a good sign when men who associate from day to day in commercial or industrial life never speak to each other about the kingdom of God, the interests of the church and the religious demands of society; when men who owe all that is best in their lives to our Christian civilization give no sign of reverence for Christ and regard for his church, but allow even Sabbath days to pass without attendance at church, without a word of prayer in the family, or a season of serious self-searching as to the ruling motive of life. We need today the establishing of a custom that shall put a religious program into the life of every business man and make him brave enough to confess his faith in God anywhere and everywhere and honest enough in business to look into the open eyes of the man with whom he deals, and in a natural tone of voice and with genuine enthusiasm converse about the subjects that are suggested by the thought of the church.

But be assured that if religion be anything at all, a true program of the Christian life will embrace freedom of utterance, a reverent habit of Sabbath observance, the daily

The Vesper Hour

reading of religious literature, the frequent canvassing of great religious and humanitarian questions; a deliberate and earnest thinking about the most serious needs of the world and about wise methods of serving society.

There are many ways in which thoughts of duty and of God and dreams of helpful service to humanity may be delicately interwoven in the texture of everyday secular life; and one may dream sweet dreams and have inspiring visions of the better things to be, even while he gives himself heartily to the task in hand, however commonplace or coarse it may seem to be. And more than this, a habit that opens the soul to a realm of spiritual truth every day accustoms one to the facts, the energies and the atmosphere of that wider and worthier world to which we all belong, and into which one of these days (when our days are numbered) we shall pass, with or without a taste for what is highest and best. It may seem a very useless matter to spend time every day in the study of a foreign language, but entering a foreign land some morning, it will be something to be familiar with its speech.

When I insist upon a conformity so exact and in a matter apparently so unimportant it is not that he should thus seek to satisfy conscience; it is not that he should thus keep a promise or discharge a duty; but that he as a man whose brain belongs to God and has been given to God may make sure of a benefit, increase his power and confirm a habit that will guarantee the reading of 365 pages that current year and of ten large volumes of useful and inspiring literature in a decade. Christian people must be reading people.



"Domestic Manners of the Americans"

Reference has been made in Mr. Brooks' articles "As Others See Us," to Mrs. Trollope's famous book, "Domestic Manners of the Americans." Mrs. Frances Milton Trollope the mother of Anthony Trollope, was herself an English novelist and a writer of travels. She lived in the United States from 1829 to 1832 and her keen observation and ready pen have given us a vivid picture of our country as it appeared in those days to an Englishwoman brought up in the cultivated circles of European society. In the "Introduction" to the 1832 edition of her book on America, the objects which she had in view are stated as follows:

"She leaves to abler pens the more ambitious task of commenting on the democratic form of the American government; while, by describing faithfully, the daily aspect of ordinary life, she has endeavored to show how greatly the advantage is on the side of those who are governed by the few, instead of the many. The chief object she has had in view is to encourage her countrymen to hold fast by a constitution that ensures all the blessings which flow from established habit and solid principles. If they forego these, they will incur the fearful risk of breaking up their repose by introducing the jarring tumult and universal degradation which invariably follow the wild scheme of placing all the power of the state in the hands of the populace."

Mrs. Trollope's temporary sojourn in Memphis gave her some experience of primitive hotel conditions of that period:

"They ate in perfect silence, and with such astonishing rapidity that their dinner was over literally before ours was begun; the instant they ceased to eat they darted from the table in the same moody silence which they had preserved since they entered the room, and a second set took their

places, who performed their silent parts in the same manner. The only sounds heard were those produced by the knives and forks, with the unceasing chorus of coughing, etc. No women were present except ourselves and the hostess; the good women of Memphis being well content to let their lords partake of Mrs. Anderson's turkeys and venison, (without their having the trouble of cooking for them) whilst they regaled themselves on mush and milk at home.

"The following picture of manners and customs in Cincinnati give a glimpse of some of the varied types which helped to make up the society of a typical western American city of that period:

"Though I do not quite sympathize with those who consider Cincinnati as one of the wonders of the earth, I certainly think it a city of extraordinary size and importance, when it is remembered that thirty years ago the aboriginal forest occupied the ground where it stands; and every month appears to extend its limits and its wealth.

"I have read much of the 'few and simple wants of rational man,' and I used to give a sort of dreamy acquiescence to the reasoning that went to prove each added want an added woe. Those who reason in a comfortable London drawing-room know little about the matter. Were the aliments which sustain life all that we wanted, the faculties of the hog might suffice us; but if we analyze an hour of enjoyment, we shall find that it is made up of agreeable sensations occasioned by a thousand delicate impressions on almost as many nerves; where these nerves are sluggish from never having been awakened, external objects are less important, for they are less perceived; but where the whole machine of the human frame is in full activity, where every sense brings home to consciousness its touch of pleasure or of pain, then every object that meets the senses is important as a vehicle of happiness or misery. But let no frames so tempered visit the United States; or if they do, let it be with no longer pausing than will store the memory with im-

ages, which, by the force of contrast, shall sweeten the future.

“The ‘simple’ manner of living in Western America was more distasteful to me from its levelling effects on the manners of the people, than from the personal privations that it rendered necessary; and yet, till I was without them, I was in no degree aware of the many pleasurable sensations derived from the little elegance and refinements enjoyed by the middle classes in Europe. There were many circumstances, too trifling even for my gossiping pages, which pressed themselves daily and hourly upon us, and which forced us to remember painfully that we were not at home. It requires an abler pen than mine to trace the connection which I am persuaded exists between these deficiencies and the minds and manners of the people. All animal wants are supplied profusely at Cincinnati, and at a very easy rate; but alas: these go but a little way in the history of a day’s enjoyment. The total and universal want of manners, both in males and females, is so remarkable, that I was constantly endeavoring to account for it. It certainly does not proceed from want of intellect. I have listened to much dull and heavy conversation in America, but rarely to any that I could strictly call silly (if I accept the everywhere privileged class of very young ladies). They appear to me to have clear heads and active intellects; are more ignorant on subjects that are only of conventional value, than on such as are of intrinsic importance; but there is no charm, no grace in their conversation. I very seldom, during my whole stay in the country, heard a sentence elegantly turned, and correctly pronounced from the lips of an American. There is always something either in the expression or the accent that jars the feelings and shocks the taste.”

THE GLORIOUS INSTITUTIONS OF AMERICA.

“I was once sitting with a party of ladies, among whom were one or two young girls, whose curiosity was greater than their patriotism, and they asked me many questions

concerning the splendor and extent of London. I was endeavoring to satisfy them by the best description I could give, when we were interrupted by another lady, who exclaimed, 'Do hold your tongues, girls, about London; if you want to know what a beautiful city is, look at Philadelphia; when Mrs. Trollope has been there, I think she will allow that it is better worth talking about than that great overgrown collection of nasty, filthy, dirty streets that they call London.'

"Once in Ohio, and once in the District of Columbia, I had an atlas displayed before me, that I might be convinced by the evidence of my own eyes what a very contemptible little country I came from. I shall never forget the gravity with which, on the latter occasion, a gentleman drew out his graduated pencil-case, and showed me, past contradiction, that the whole of the British dominions did not equal in size one of their least important states; nor the air with which, after the demonstration, he placed his feet upon the chimney piece, considerably higher than his head, and whistled Yankee Doodle.

"Their glorious institutions, their unequalled freedom, were, of course, not left unsung.

"I took some pains to ascertain what they meant by their glorious institutions, and it is with no affectation of ignorance that I profess I never could comprehend the meaning of the phrase, which is, however, on the lip of every American, when he talks of his country. I asked if by their institutions they meant their hospitals and penitentiaries. 'Oh no; we mean the glorious institutions which are co-eval with the revolution.' 'Is it,' I asked, 'your institution of marriage which you have made purely a civil and not a religious rite, to be performed by a justice of the peace, instead of a clergyman?'

" 'Oh, no; we speak of our divine political institutions.'

"Yet still I was in the dark, nor can I guess what they mean, unless they call incessant electioneering, without pause

or interval for a single day, for a single hour, of their whole existence, 'a glorious institution.' "

SOCIAL INTERCOURSE IN AMERICA.

"But whatever may be the talents of the persons who meet together in society, the very shape, form and arrangement of the meeting is sufficient to paralyze conversation. The women invariably herd together at one part of the room, and the men at the other; but, in justice to Cincinnati, I must acknowledge that this arrangement is by no means peculiar to that city, or to the western side of the Alleghenies. Sometimes a small attempt at music produces a partial reunion; a few of the most daring youths, animated by the consciousness of curled hair and smart waistcoats, approach the piano-forte, and begin to mutter a little to the half-grown pretty things, who are comparing with one another "how many quarters' music they have had." Where the mansion is of sufficient dignity to have two drawing rooms, the piano, the little ladies and the slender gentlemen are left to themselves, and on such occasions the sound of laughter is often heard to issue from among them. But the fate of the more dignified personages, who are left in the other room, is extremely dismal. The gentlemen spit, talk of elections and the price of produce, and spit again. The ladies look at each other's dresses till they know every pin by heart; talk of Parson Somebody's last sermon on the day of judgment, on Dr. T'otherbody's new pills for dyspepsia, till the "tea" is announced, when they all console themselves together for whatever they may have suffered in keeping awake, by taking more tea, coffee, hot cake and custard, hoe cake, johnny cake, waffle cake, and dodger cake, pickled peaches and preserved cucumbers, ham, turkey, hung beef, apple sauce, and pickled oysters, than were ever prepared in any other country of the known world. After this massive meal is over they return to the drawing-room, and it always appeared to me that they remained together as long as they could bear it, and then they rise *en masse*, cloak, bonnet, shawl, and exit."

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE MINISTER.

"It is impossible not to smile at the close resemblance to be traced between the feelings of a first-rate Presbyterian or Methodist lady, fortunate enough to have secured a favorite Itinerant for her meeting, and those of a first-rate London Blue, equally blest in the presence of a fashionable poet. There is a strong family likeness among us all the world over.

"The best rooms, the best dresses, the choicest refreshments solemnize the meeting. While the party is assembling, the load-star of the hour is occupied in whispered conversations with the guests as they arrive. They are called brothers and sisters, and the greetings are very affectionate. When the room is full, the company, of whom a vast majority are always women, are invited, entreated, and coaxed to confess before their brothers and sisters, all their thoughts, faults, and follies.

"These confessions are strange scenes; the more they confess, the more invariably are they encouraged and caressed. When this is over, they all kneel, and the Itinerant prays extempore. They then eat and drink; and then they sing hymns, pray, exhort, sing, and pray again, till the excitement reaches a very high pitch indeed. These scenes are going on at some house or other every evening during the revival, nay, at many at the same time, for the churches and meeting houses cannot give occupation to half the Itinerants, though they are all open throughout the day, and till a late hour in the night, and the officiating ministers succeed each other in the occupation of them."



OFFICERS OF CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE
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 JAMES H. CARLISLE

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

There was no hunger, war, nor strife
 For none was wronged and none oppressed
 But every man just led the life
 And thought the thoughts that he loved best.
Old Gaelic Poem.

As students of this coming American Year every Chautauqua reader has an opportunity to examine carefully the questions which the unique conditions of life in our country are constantly presenting. This is a time of social unrest. Great numbers of people are studying social problems as never before and with a spirit which seeks for a practical outcome which shall insure to every one complete justice and the largest possible opportunities for development. We shall be able to use the "laboratory method" in our work, supplementing the statements of our authors by investigations of our own. And it may be that these investigations will set in motion influences which will contribute to the permanent betterment of many a community.

LOCAL STUDIES.

Many individual readers possessing the natural instincts of the investigator will make studies of conditions around them on their own account, while Circles will have the special advantage of combining the energies of their members and gathering facts from different sources. Per-

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haps it may be helpful to repeat here some suggestions already given, with the addition also, of a few others:

Find out when and by whom your community was settled and why. What nationalities have you now? Where do the different races live—in groups or are they scattered through the town? When and why did the later immigrants come to you? What are their occupations? Are there any native art industries in your town carried on by persons of foreign birth? How has household service been affected by the changes in your population? Are any of your public schools composed largely of foreign children? What special methods are employed to facilitate their education? What opportunities for education has the adult foreigner? Have you discovered any concrete cases of marked ability shown by individual foreigners?

MAP MAKING.

Many social settlements in the large cities have prepared race maps of their respective neighborhoods. Each Chautauqua Circle should do the same, covering in general the whole town. In these maps the location of the various nationalities may be shown by means of different colors. Such a map might include also the situation of the various public schools, with some facts as to the density of population in different sections, the relation of the parks to these districts, etc. The Circles can get a great deal of help from the settlements, mission churches, etc. Different members of the Circle should be assigned to given sections of the community. In some cases two or three members might work together in gathering facts relating to some densely populated section. Then have one member of the Circle who has a special aptitude for map making combine the small maps worked out by the local investigators into one map for the town. The Editor of the Round Table will be glad to see these maps and it may be possible to reproduce them in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. Which Circle will be the first to report?

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

Much very interesting material for side lights on our reading will be found in certain Government publications noted in "Races and Immigrants in America." The Report

of the Commissioner General of Immigration for 1906 ought to be in the hands of every Circle and some member appointed to note a few significant facts from it and report at each meeting. It contains some interesting charts and discussions of many features of the immigrant situation.

Reports of the Bureau of Labor are full of timely discussions. That for May, 1907,—No. 70, contains a comprehensive article on the Italian in this country. The bulletins on the negro question are exceedingly important. Any of this material can be secured by writing to the two departments above mentioned at Washington.

Another very helpful work for reference is Vol. XV of the Report of the Industrial Commission on "Immigration and Education." This is one volume of an extensive series prepared by a committee of experts a few years ago. It is very readable and should be available for Circle use. This is not sent upon direct application but can usually be secured through a congressman. Circles which have public libraries however small, can get the librarian to send for it.



STUART AND COPLEY.

Two of the little monographs in the "Masters in Art" series are devoted to Stuart and Copley respectively. Each publication contains ten excellent reproductions of the artist's work, a description of each picture, critical comments upon the artist from various sources and a brief biography. They can be secured from the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York, for twenty cents each.

CONCERNING OTHER HELPS.

In studying the negro question, the Atlanta University publications are important. There is a small charge for these and Circles which have no libraries would do well to make up a small fund by a contribution of ten cents each, from which they can secure occasional pamphlets of this sort.

A southern planter, Mr. A. H. Stone, has been making some economic studies of the negro based on his own experience. They have been published, as will be seen from Mr. Commons' bibliography, largely in magazines of a rather spe-

cial sort. Many libraries would be glad to send for these special numbers, or the Circle might purchase them from its book fund, and after some member has analyzed them and made a report to the Circle, they can be presented to the library. This is an excellent way for the Circle to help toward equipping its local library.

By all means secure the special numbers of *Charities* referred to by Mr. Commons. This publication discusses so many practical problems relating to our studies this year that the Circle should urge the local library to subscribe for it. Separate numbers can be secured for ten cents from the office of publication, 105 E. 22nd Street, New York City.



SOME IMPORTANT ANNOUNCEMENTS TO BOTH OLD AND NEW MEMBERS.

The Membership Book, heretofore a separate publication, will be merged this year in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, every subscriber for THE CHAUTAUQUAN becoming a member of the C. L. S. C. without the payment of any additional fee.

The material formerly included in the Membership Book, review questions, helps, etc., will be published in the Round Table section of the magazine. The brief and white seal memoranda in their usual form will be found on pages 140 and 144 of this magazine. Duplicate memoranda to be filled out and returned will be furnished as heretofore, printed on a good quality of writing paper. Any member can secure this duplicate paper by sending a postal card giving name, address and C. L. S. C. Class to the C. L. S. C. office at Chautauqua, New York.

Review questions upon "Races and Immigrants in America" are also included in this Round Table, and questions on the other books will be published sufficiently far in advance to meet the needs of all.

This plan will aid in further unifying the course and it is believed will be welcomed by all Chautauquans. Members of families where one copy of THE CHAUTAUQUAN is already taken or of Circles where several members plan

to use one magazine together, can become enrolled members of the C. L. S. C. by the payment of an annual fee of one dollar which will entitle them to all the privileges of membership, the annual certificate and duplicate memoranda.

TO ALL GRADUATES.

Graduates of the C. L. S. C. who wish to go right on with the regular work, can earn one seal by reading the required course for the year, and a second seal by filling out both the brief and white seal papers for the year. Such graduates are enrolled if they subscribe for *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* or if not subscribers may be enrolled by the payment of the membership fee of one dollar.

TO NEW CHAUTAUQUANS OF THE CLASS OF 1911.

Many new members are eager to know how they may have seals upon their diplomas at graduation. Such seals may be earned by filling out "memoranda" each year, five white seals during the four years. See the printed paragraph at the head of the "memoranda" on page 140 of this magazine. Seals may also be earned for "Recognized Reading." These are further explained in the "duplicate memoranda" pamphlet sent on application to all enrolled members. Supplementary seal courses on many different subjects are also open to those who have much time for reading. The Special Course Hand Book which can be secured by sending a stamp to the C. L. S. C. office at Chautauqua, New York, gives full particulars of these.

WORD STUDIES.

How many of us constantly meet and pass over in our reading, words which we fancy we understand but which we should be hard pressed to define accurately? This mental haziness not only prevents us from enriching our vocabularies with words which are in common use but prevents us often from getting the full meaning of an author. Mr. John Graham Brooks tells of his experiment with a class of students to whom he gave the word "luxury," asking them to define it. The result showed astonishingly diverse

ideas upon the subject. Such an experiment might be tried by Circles. Let the program committee select three or four words from the readings which have not yet been taken up by the Circle and let the members write definitions on the spot. Many of us might find difficulty in giving clear ideas of the meaning of such words as "democracy," "alien," "virility," "yeoman," "immunity."



C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

*"We study the Word and the Works of God."
 "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
 "Never be Discouraged."*



C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.	INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY — May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.	INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.	ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.	RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.	
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.	
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.	
ADDISON DAY—May 1.	



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR OCTOBER.

FIRST WEEK—OCT. 1-8.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us." 1. "The Problem Opened."
 In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America." Chapter I, Race and Democracy.

SECOND WEEK—OCT. 8-15.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us." 2. "Concerning Our Critics."
 In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America," Chapter II, Colonial Race Elements.

THIRD WEEK—OCT. 15-22.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "American Painting," Chapter I, Colonial Painting.
 In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America," Chapter III, The Negro.

FOURTH WEEK—OCT. 22-29.

In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America," Chapter IV, XIXth Century Additions; to page 68.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

Readers or Circle program committees may think it advisable to change the above outline of required reading so as to consider both chapters of "As Others See Us" at a single meeting, thus leaving the next meeting free to be devoted entirely to "Races and Immigrants in America." By the first plan the meetings gain in variety—by the second, in concentration. A little experimenting will soon show to any Circle what method is best adapted to its peculiar needs.

FIRST WEEK.

Roll Call: Enumerate as many as possible of the advantages to be gained from an unprejudiced study of foreign criticism of America.

Review of Chapter I, "The Problem Opened" in "As Others See Us."

Reading: Selections from Mrs. Trollope. (The Library Shelf.)
Word Studies from Required Reading (see paragraph in Round Table).

Review and Discussion of "Races and Immigrants in America," Chapter I.

Brief Book Reviews: Mr. Edward Bellamy's point of view in his "Equality." An opposite point of view in "Inequality and Progress," George Harris.

Discussion of plans for a study of your own community (see paragraph in Round Table).

SECOND WEEK.

Roll Call: Report by each member of his or her ancestors from the time of their emigration to this country, showing what different race elements they represent.

Review of "As Others See Us," Chapter II, "Concerning Our Critics."

Oral Reports: Brief accounts of Harriet Martineau, Mrs. Trollope, and William Archer. (See Poole's Index.)

Review and Discussion of "Races and Immigrants," Chapter II.

Reading from "An Immigrant's Story" in this magazine or from "The Sons of Old Scotland in America," H. M. Casson, *Munsey's Magazine*, 34:599; or "The Dutch in America," 35:238; or "The Spanish in America," 35:294.

Comparison and Discussion of charts brought by members showing race elements in the Circle's own community, with brief reports on the original settlers of the town, where they came from and why.

THIRD WEEK.

Roll Call: Different points of view on the negro problem as expressed by recent writers whose opinions are worth considering. (See recent books and magazine articles—Poole's index under "Negro" gives many references, and Mr. Commons' bibliography is very suggestive.)

Review of "Races and Immigrants," Chapter III.

Oral Reports on Negro Communities: The following Bulletins of the Department of Labor contain much interesting material. They should be assigned to different members for summary and report. No. 38, Louisiana Sugar Plantations; No. 35, Negro Landholders of Georgia; No. 22, Studies of the Black graphy and also "Masters in Art," Monographs on Stuart and

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Belt; No. 37 of Litwalton, Virginia. (See also paragraph in Round Table.)

Reading: Selection from "Joys of Being a Negro," a humorous article by a negro, *Atlantic Monthly*, 97:245, (Feb. 1906).

Review of important article by Ray Stannard Baker in *American Magazine* for April, 1907, on the Atlanta situation or articles on the same subject by Booker T. Washington in *The Outlook*, 84:913-6 (Dec. 15, 1906), entitled "Golden Rule in Atlanta." (These magazines can easily be secured for a small amount from their offices of publication in New York City.)

FOURTH WEEK.

Roll Call: Brief characterizations of different negroes who have contributed to literature and the nature of their writings. (In the Atlanta University Publications, No. 10, is "A Select Bibliography of the Negro American.")

Reading: Selections from "Some efforts of Negroes for Social Betterment." (See Atlanta University Publications, No. 3.)

Oral Reports: "Social Interests of Negroes in Northern Cities." See *Charities*, Special Number, Oct. 7, 1905. This contains a number of short illustrated articles on different aspects of the negro question in the North. It sets forth many facts not realized by the average reader.

Discussion: Number and location of negroes in the Circle's own community. The kind of occupations in which they are engaged and the nature of the education which they are receiving.

Review of article on "American Painting."

Discussion of pictures with added items of interest gathered from supplementary articles and books. See Miss Spencer's bibliography and also "Masters in Art" monographs on Stuart and Copley. (See paragraph on the latter in Round Table.)



HOW CHAUTAUQUA CIRCLES HAVE PROMOTED PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

"This is a very auspicious opening for our American Year," said Pendragon as an unusually large number of delegates gathered at the Round Table. "Perhaps," remarked one of them, "it is because many of us have attended some Chautauqua this summer and are possessed of a fresh supply of enthusiasm. At the Assembly at Coffeyville, Kansas, which I attended we enrolled nearly one hundred members for the Class of 1911. Miss Hamilton who is in charge of the Round Table work there and at several other Chautauquas seems to have a genius for interesting people."

"Letters from the Assembly field show a spirit of appreciation of the American course which ought to set great numbers of people to studying their own country," said Pendragon. "I wonder if all of you realize how much can be done right now to interest people in this new year? You remember," he continued, "that the Beatrice, Nebraska, S. H. G. showed a very public spirited point of view in its delegate's report in August. The members were



View in Blackwell, Oklahoma.



Interior of Library, Blackwell, Oklahoma.



Public Library, Somerset, Kentucky (Building on Left).

planning to make Chautauqua's influence felt all through that part of the State. Let me read you this note just received from Miss Fuller, their secretary: 'Never before in the ten or twelve years I have been interested in Chautauqua reading has there been so much interest manifested in the Round Table hour—both by Chautauquans and outsiders. On the evening of Recognition Day an Alumni Banquet was held. . . . The pavilion was hung with the banners of the classes who had graduated at this Assembly, decorated with flowers. On the tables hollyhock blossoms were arranged to spell C. L. S. C.. At the close of the social hour a permanent C. L. S. C. Alumni Association was formed, the object being to unite all Chautauqua graduates in creating Chautauqua enthusiasm and in assisting local managers of assemblies to have the C. L. S. C. given a prominent place on programs. In short, to work up an interest in the C. L. S. C. anywhere and everywhere.'

"We had a very fine graduating class at Chautauqua this summer," remarked Pendragon, as he laid aside the letter, "and a surprisingly large proportion of the members reported that they had read alone. Business and professional men referred with enthusiasm to the value of the work to themselves. Hundreds of such men would be delighted to take the course if they could realize what it would mean. Every delegate here can do something to reach individual readers even where it does not seem easy to start a Circle. Do your part in enlisting others and you will be rendering a real service to your country—for the questions which we are

studying this year very deeply concern the future of our own land."



Pendragon laid several photographs on the table. "Reports of your library efforts are to be in order today," he said. "You know our Circles are responsible for starting a large number of libraries and there are many more not yet on our records which we hope to gather up as time goes on. Here for instance is the case of Wellsville, New York, which came to our notice quite incidentally. The librarian writes that the library developed from a Chautauqua Circle. She adds:

"We are now occupying pleasant rooms in the City Hall. Last spring we had a gift of fifteen hundred dollars for a library building and by a popular subscription a corner lot facing the High School building has been purchased to build on. . . I cannot tell you how much this library means to our village and to the club that started it."

"Next year we may expect to see illustrations of 'before and after'—the present rooms in the City Hall and the beautiful new building."

"In opening our discussion on this interesting subject I think you will appreciate some points which were brought out at an informal talk given at one of the C. L. S. C. Councils at Chautauqua this summer by Miss Downey, who is in charge of the Chautauqua Summer Library School:

"1. Try to get liberal minded people to serve on your library boards. Such people are likely to be fertile in ideas and open to suggestions. The 'board' often makes or mars the efficiency of the librarian.

"2. Most libraries in average towns haven't sufficient material. Talk with the librarian and see where he or she feels the inadequacy of the library. See if your public school has one and how many people are reached by it. Has your jail any suitable reading matter? What about the poor house and the pest house?

"3. Investigate the country in your neighborhood. There is great dearth of reading in country homes. Many of the people do not know where and how to get books and they easily fall a prey to the subscription agent. Often persons of large means are absolutely destitute of varied or timely reading matter. The church is the natural center in country districts. Small libraries, not merely the Sunday school type but one including general literature could be established at such a center and the books given out weekly to the great good cheer and enlightenment of the community,

"4. Don't hoard your magazines and new books,—those which you do not especially care to keep. Many libraries are delighted to get extra magazines to complete files or to put into temporary binding for circulation. If the librarian cannot use them find some country church or school which would consider them a boon.



"In connection with the suggestion about the jail, the poor house, etc.," said the delegate from Alabama, "I should like to say that we have a family physician who is, like most doctors, interested in the environment of his patients. He has many patients among the poor and we frequently slip into his carriage a package of magazines which he is always glad to carry to some needy household. The fact is that these little personal attentions in the matter of distributing reading matter can be increased a hundred fold if we only think about it a little."



"You will remember," said Pendragon, "that we have been following the fortunes of the library at Blackwell, Oklahoma, for several years and how enriched it was last year by the unexpected gift of a hundred and thirty books from the private library of a Chautauqua graduate of 1906 in Connecticut. It seems to be a case of one good turn which deserves another. You must hear the account from the delegate herself, Mrs. Lively." "This photograph," responded the speaker, "is merely a picture postal but I think many of you may like to know how a town in the Indian Territory looks." "Looks as if one could take a long breath," commented a Pennsylvanian as he mentally compared the wide street and low buildings with his own town thrust down among the mountains. "In spite of which we get out of breath, just like other Americans," laughed the delegate. "You will see the front of our library on the right, half way down the street, and here is a glimpse of the interior. Our first library headquarters were darkened by a new building so you can imagine the pleasure with which we received from one of our merchants, Mr. Barrett, who is especially interested in the educational upbuilding of the town, the offer of two rooms over his dry goods store, light and airy, with heat and electric light, centrally located and in every way desirable. When we found that the giver was putting them at our service indefinitely for library purposes, we felt that our enterprise had taken a long step forward. The proceeds of the C. L. S. C. lecture course last year brought us one hundred and twenty-seven dollars, part of which we invested in books at once, holding a little in reserve for another year. Dr. Byron King whose lecture here several years ago gave

us the start in our library venture was on the course again this year, and gave us friendly help in various ways. The Commercial Club have given us a library table, the library board secured chairs to match and they came to us as a gift. These really emphasized the need for new quarters and as I have said the need has been royally met. Our C. L. S. C. lecture course is already under consideration for next year. You may expect to hear of steady growth and who knows? some day a Carnegie library!"



"I may say," remarked a genial southerner, "that I'm a good deal of a believer in fate and I want to tell you right here that that town is going to get its Carnegie library!" As the laugh which greeted this bit of optimism subsided, the librarian from Tyler, Texas, took the floor: "You've traced our library all the way from our 'book social' in 1898 to its beautiful apotheosis in a Carnegie building in 1904, but we are still going on I assure you. The people of Tyler are proud of the library and its well kept grounds in the midst of a town which like many others of twelve thousand inhabitants is very dirty. This has had a visible effect in civic improvement. The library is regarded as one of the agencies which is tending toward permanent improvement. The circulation increases every month and the library itself is more and more visited and used."

"If any of you doubt the possibilities of a library in your own town however unpromising it may be," said Pendragon, "let me advise you to read the story of 'Tyler' in THE CHAUTAUQUANS for May, 1902, 3, and 4, and September, 1905."

"Of course you understand," said the next speaker from Somerset, Kentucky, as she held up a photograph, "that our Circle alone is not responsible for this beautiful building which houses our library. As I said last year we feel that our Superintendent of Schools really deserves the chief credit but we helped agitate the question and it was understood that we would turn over our carefully selected library of some sixty volumes. We were also asked to raise two hundred and fifty dollars to help furnish the new building. I am happy to say that we have been very successful in our undertaking and the reading rooms are very tastefully furnished with mission furniture. On the back of each piece is a small silver plate engraved with the words 'Chautauqua Club, 1907.' The library was opened to the public the last week in July and, as you see, the building is very attractive with a lecture room on the third floor, reading rooms on the second, and a basement fitted up as a gymnasium. The library is used also as a place of meeting

and we hold our Circle there. As a Circle we feel very much encouraged at the success of our efforts to help along the community for this is our first organized attempt. We expect to begin our course in October with nearly all our old members and possibly a few new ones."



"It is three years," said Pendragon, "since we have had tidings from the 'Breezy Point' girls at Charlotte, Vermont. You remember that the last time we heard from them they had bought a dilapidated old church building and fitted it up as 'Library Hall.' This was in a little village community with few inhabitants but which was capable of ministering to a scattered outlying region of some fourteen hundred people, and the young girls of the village, thirteen of them, rose to the opportunity. They began their efforts to raise funds by a little play, 'Breezy Point.' Its fame spread and they gave it in an adjoining town. From that time on their ingenuity knew no faltering and 'Library Hall' whose picture you can see in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for May, 1904, has become an important educational and social center for the community. Miss Leavenworth is here to report its later history."

"Since writing you," replied the delegate, "we have purchased a piano for 'Library Hall,' re-seated it with opera chairs, laid a new floor—in all spent three hundred dollars in repairing the hall over our library—and in the fall I was able to report as treasurer one hundred and eight dollars in rents from the hall. Last year we borrowed three hundred dollars to build sheds for horses. We have paid part of this debt and a sale this summer will dispose of still more of it. We are buying books all the time and have now fully nine hundred volumes. We hold many pleasant social gatherings at the Hall in the winter and the Whist Club have the use of it every two weeks. Many people attend our entertainments and draw books from our library. Some people think the story of 'how we girls started a library' sounds like a fairy tale, but we just keep working and have taken in some younger girls who will help later on to 'roll the cause along!'"

The Round Table indicated approval of this report with hearty applause. In closing Pendragon reminded them of the need of transmitting impulse into action. "There is an old French phrase," he said, "which you all know, '*Noblesse oblige*.' I want to remind you as our last report of a chance to practice it. Do you remember some years ago, a photograph which we published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN (May, 1902) showing a country store in an isolated New York community where a few people had given time

and money and effort to provide better reading matter for the district? In New York State travelling libraries can be secured, but some expense is involved and it takes a considerable amount of public spirit to collect the funds. I have just had a letter from the courageous woman who is using her store for the library. I will read it to you:

"We had another library last summer, but did not succeed in getting one for winter. A number of the men asked about it toward spring and said they would like us to get another and they would contribute toward it. We succeeded in raising nearly three dollars out of the four which we needed, but we sent for the library of seventy-five volumes (including twenty-five books for young people), trusting we would get the money later. The money has not been received, but some of the young ladies who are serving ice cream every Saturday for the benefit of the church here think they will serve ice cream one evening especially for the library. In this way we hope to raise enough money to pay our debts and also enough for another library this fall. The library is used much more during the winter than during the summer. This is a farming community and the people have little time for reading during the summer. Business is very dull here and in many ways things look discouraging. The moral tone of our village is not as good as it was at one time and we feel that we must have a library as an uplifting force."

"Surely among all our Chautauqua Circles," added Pen-dragon, "there are two or three who would consider it a privilege to help this little lonely country district. Children are growing up here and need a fresher mental atmosphere. Let some Circle undertake to gather up fifty good but discarded magazines, pull off the advertisements, and with a little paste and paper supply some firm covers. Make up a snug little box of these, then browse around your community for some readable interesting books and add a few and start off the box to this neighboring Chautauquan who will find good use for all the material in the isolated homes which she can reach. Write a line to me at the Editorial Office of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Hyde Park, Chicago, and I will give you the address. Don't forget how cheered the Blackwell, Oklahoma, members were by that friendly outstretched hand from Connecticut. Let some Circle play fairy godmother to this little hamlet in New York State."

The C. L. S. C. Round Table

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "AS OTHERS SEE US."

CHAPTER I.

1. Why did the letters of Captain Basil Hall have so much influence in their day? 2. Give an instance of his method of criticizing American manners. 3. What was his point of view regarding the dictionary? 4. Contrast his opinion with that of Mr. William Archer. 5. What aspects of the coming democracy in America seemed to Captain Hall full of alarm? 6. Give instances of the importance which he attached to class distinctions. 7. What idea of his character do we get from this book? 8. What comment did he make upon social gatherings in America? 9. How did Mrs. Trollope's experience agree with his? 10. Contrast ideas of propriety in 1827 with those which now prevail. 11. What were some of the criticism made by Dickens in his first visit? 12. What was his opinion twenty-five years later? 13. What was Janson's view of our government? 14. What other peculiar views were set forth by intelligent critics? 15. What advantages has this study of foreign criticism?

CHAPTER II.

1. What features of American life have been "overworked" by our foreign critics? 2. What were some of the motives which inspired early criticism of America? 3. Why are the criticisms of Chastellux especially worthy of attention? 4. Show the point of view taken by C. W. Janson. 5. Give examples of the attempts to secure favor in England by condemning America. 6. What did Mrs. Trollope state was her chief object in writing? 7. How was she influenced by her own needs and surroundings? 8. Describe the conditions which made Tom Moore a critic of America. 9. How is the American attitude at this time illustrated by the treatment of Jefferson? 10. Illustrate by the reception given Miss Martineau. 11. What opinions were put forth by M. Moreau and why have they little value?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What is a classic? 2. Define neologism. 3. When were the "rotten boroughs" done away with in England? 4. Who was Hiram Powers? 5. Who is William Archer?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON AMERICAN PAINTING.

CHAPTER I.

1. How were the beginnings of art in this country unlike those of many other nations? 2. What previous acquaintance had the colonists with the art of Europe? 3. What form did painting in this country naturally take and why? 4. What was meant by a "limner?" 5. What are some of the earliest works of these unknown men? 6. What woman may possibly have been the first native artist? 7. Give an account of Gustavus Hesselius. 8. Who was John Watson? 9. What is the tragic story of Bishop Berkeley's experiment? 10. Give an account of the work of John Smybert.

CHAPTER II.

1. What artists expressed the highest development of Colonial painting? 2. In what different ways was the influence of West and Copley exerted? 3. Give an account of West's career. 4. What influences contributed to Copley's career as an artist? 5. Give an account of his life. 6. What customs of the times are illustrated in his paintings? 7. What were the distinctive characteristics of his work? 8. Why is he the most significant painter

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "RACES AND IMMIGRANTS IN AMERICA."

The following Review Questions upon "Races and Immigrants in America" cover the entire volume, though only three chapters are assigned for study in October. Members may find it convenient to remove these pages and paste them in the book itself.

CHAPTER I. RACE AND DEMOCRACY.

1. In what sense are all men created equal? 2. To what degree is inequality possible in a democracy? 3. In what respect has the present generation in this country shifted its ground regarding democracy? 4. How were the democratic ideals of our country fashioned? 5. What are the conditions necessary for democratic government? 6. Show how they are necessary. 7. How did the castes of India probably originate? 8. How did religion help social inequality in India? 9. Why does the European peasant consider himself an inferior class? 10. Through what occupations can the peasants rise? 11. What then is the character of our immigrants from Catholic Europe? 12. What different methods have been employed for the classification of races? 13. Describe the general distribution of the races. 14. Why are the black, brown, and red races most alien to us? 15. Give examples of the amalgamation of races. 16. Show how in many cases there has been segregation instead. 17. Contrast democracy in Switzerland and in Australia.

CHAPTER II: COLONIAL RACE ELEMENTS.

1. What was the nature of Mr. Lodge's statistical summary of race influences in America? 2. In what important respect was his investigation a limited one? 3. What facts suggest that race origin is not the chief source of greatness? 4. What different conditions gave to certain races an advantage when they first came to this country? 5. How did the social standing of these races affect their eminence in America? 6. How did the different social conditions in North and South affect individual development? 7. What two questions are most important in considering the future influence of races in this country? 8. How did the earliest immigrants happen to be Teutonic and Protestant? 9. Why did New England and New York show such a difference in racial assimilation? 10. What were the fundamental features of Penn's Colony? 11. What was the origin of the "Pennsylvania Dutch"? 12. In what respects did Pennsylvania set the type for the future American nation? 13. What type of eminent men have the Scotch Irish contributed to America? 14. Describe the composition of the Scotch Irish race. 15. How did they become "Irish"? 16. What misfortunes led to their immigration to this country? 17. Where did they settle and why? 18. Why have they been so influential in producing the American type?

CHAPTER III: THE NEGRO.

1. Describe the region in Africa from which the American Negro came. 2. What was the character of the people? 3. How did slavery affect the race in this country? 4. What events gave to the negro the franchise? 5. What was the purpose of each of the two amendments, the 14th and the 15th? 6. What was the effect of negro domination in the South? 7. How has the negro vote practically disappeared? 8. What advantage has the South in elections? 9. How did the 14th amendment anticipate such a

situation? 10. How is the negro handicapped in mechanical occupations? 11. How by his improvidence? 12. What progress has he made in "coöperation"? 13. What is a wise attitude toward suffrage for the negro? What for his higher education? 14. How have the negroes increased absolutely? 15. Have they also increased proportionately? 16. What redistribution is going on among the negroes? 17. What unfortunate feature has the city immigration? 18. Why does the negro increase less rapidly than the white? 19. What two classes of opinions explain the negro's decline? 20. Give the arguments from environment. 21. That from moral character.

CHAPTER IV: NINETEENTH CENTURY ADDITIONS.

1. What changes in immigration are suggested by the dates 1820 and 1842? 2. How has immigration been related to industrial conditions in this country? 3. What nationalities have come to us as the result of oppression in their own countries? 4. What caused the great Irish emigration in 1846? 5. What were some of the striking features of this migration? 6. How did the German migration of the 19th Century differ from that of Colonial times? 7. What causes account for the German emigration at the present day? 8. What two other races contributed most to our population in the middle of the 19th Century? 9. Why is 1882 a marked year in immigration records? 10. Contrast eastern and western Europe socially, industrially, and religiously. 11. How has immigration from eastern Europe increased proportionately since 1882? 12. What remarkable changes have taken place in the Italian immigration? 13. From what part of Italy do our immigrants come? 14. How is the wage question a serious one in Southern Italy? 15. Describe the cost of living of these peasants. 16. How do wages and taxes in Italy compare with those of other European countries? 17. What other conditions encourage emigration? 18. How and why has South America profited from its Italian immigrants? 19. What are the characteristics of our Italian immigrants? 20. Describe the racial composition of Austro-Hungary. 21. What are some of the economic features of the country? 22. What has been the character of the emigration to this country? 23. How do the birth and death rate of Austria compare with other European countries? 24. What five countries and in what order, have contributed most to our population? 25. What different types of immigrant come to us from Russia? 26. Give a brief history of the Jews down to 1881. 27. Describe the uprising against them. 28. What qualities unite and what differentiate members of this race from one another? 29. What is the tragic tale of the Finns? 30. What is true of our French Canadian immigrants? 31. Describe the Portuguese element in this country. 32. What problems are presented by the Syrian and Armenian immigrants? 33. Describe the incoming of the Asiatic races. 34. How is our Teutonic stock being diminished at present? 35. What is true of the Hawaiian and Filipino races?

CHAPTER V: INDUSTRY.

1. What different influences in the old world have brought about emigration to America? 2. What influences in this country have been still more powerful? 3. Describe the system of labor speculators. 4. What acts following the Civil War show the encouragement given to immigration? 5. How did the cor-

porations meet the arguments of the wage earner against immigration? 6. What strong point had the wage earner in his own favor? 7. Illustrate by the negro how economic competition is often the basis of race hatred. 8. What similar conditions may be found in the North? 9. Illustrate by the Russian Jew how the economic struggle breaks down race affinities. 10. How did hostility to Chinese cheap labor express itself? 11. From what two points of view is immigration evidently regarded? 12. Compare the immigrants and native born with respect to ages. 13. To what extent and why do the men in general outnumber the women? 14. Show the proportion of skilled and unskilled labor in the different races. 15. What in general is the character of the skilled labor? 16. Why is the European skilled workman better trained than the American? 17. How is this illustrated in the machinist's trade? 18. How has England been able to protect her apprentices while America has not? 19. How are the trade unions dealing with this question? 20. Why does the immigrant work harder than he did at home? 21. How did the English and Scotch Irish, as compared with other races, show their fitness to settle a new world? 22. Why did the manufacturing period which followed call for a different type? 23. Illustrate this in the case of the anthracite coal operators. 24. In what proportion is the presence of foreign born unskilled labor shown in the census of 1900? 25. How do the Chinese and Japanese compare as skilled workers? 26. How have the Japanese been utilized? 27. Who are the model farmers of America and why? 28. Into what kind of positions does the Jew naturally drift?

CHAPTER VI: LABOR.

1. Define the four variations in the treatment of labor as property in the United States. 2. Describe the problem of negro labor on the Georgia plantation mentioned. 3. What is the other side of the problem? 4. How has it been worked out in Malay countries? 5. What form of contract labor has been recommended by Professor Jenks? 6. How does this differ from peonage? 7. What is Mr. Rosenberg's opinion of the Filipino worker? 8. Who are the non-working classes? 9. Show how the term "necessaries of life" means different things for different races. 10. Contrast the conditions demanded by necessity versus ambition. 11. Show how ownership of property stimulates ambition. 12. Show how ambition has its penalty for the wage earner. 13. What motives have the industrial and non-industrial races for refusing to work? 14. Why is the organization of labor unions more difficult in this than in other free countries? 15. Illustrate the multiplicity of races in a given industry. 16. Show how standards of living have been lowered by the coming of lower races. 17. What three low standard peoples have not yet been extensively drawn upon? 18. Show how American trade unions are a product of American conditions. 19. What effect has unionism upon the races from low standard countries? 20. What stands in the way of complete unionism in many industries? 21. What is the argument commonly given in favor of cheap labor? 22. How does cheap labor affect machinery and inventions? 23. What danger follows the excessive profits from cheap labor? 24. What is meant by "over-production" and "under-consumption"? 25. How does the variation in our imports compare with the variation in our immigration? 26. What is the significance of this?

CHAPTER VII:

CITY LIFE, CRIME, AND POVERTY.

1. Why is the study of statistics of great importance? 2. What significant change in city population has taken place between 1790 and 1900? 3. What is true of the proportion of native and foreign born in our large cities? 4. Illustrate this by different types of city. 5. What additional facts appear when we include cities of 25,000 population? 6. Compare the different races in New York and Chicago with the numbers in certain old world cities. 7. What motives inspire different classes of population to seek the cities? 8. What alarming facts show the poverty of the foreign element in the cities? 9. What dangers threaten the children of these immigrants? 10. What oversight made the conclusions of the census of 1890 regarding crime, erroneous in some particulars? 11. Compare the criminality of the native, foreign born, and native children of foreign parents. 12. What is true of juvenile crime? 13. How does city life directly promote crime among the children of immigrants? 14. What important facts become evident regarding crime among negroes? 15. How are the different races in this country affected by the drink evil? 16. What caused the outbreak of the mob spirit in 1850-55? 17. How has this mob spirit shown itself with reference to the negro? 18. Give instances of the mob spirit shown against other races in this country. 19. Why has a country devoted to law and order thus suffered? 20. What changes in immigration laws have facilitated the exclusion of paupers? 21. What causes brought an excess of paupers in the earlier years? 22. How does pauperism compare between the native and foreign born? 23. Show how the exclusion laws have been of service in the case of the Italians?

CHAPTER VIII:

POLITICS.

1. What can be said of the decline of genuine democracy in this country? 2. What problem to our democracy is presented by the Philippines? 3. What elements of danger are to be found in the socialist idea of equality? 4. How alone can true equality come? 5. Show how the "ward" system produces the boss. 6. Why was it once effective as a system of representation and why not now? 7. Explain why races and immigrants in America have not disproved democracy. 8. Why does the man rather than the measure arouse more interest among American voters? 9. How are the initiative and referendum the specific remedy for conflicting nationalities in the suffrage? 10. Why is the separation of church and state an American necessity? 11. What are the advantages of taking the saloon question out of politics? 12. How liberal were our early gifts of the suffrage? 13. How were fraudulent papers secured where the laws were less liberal? 14. Under what conditions did Congress give the Bureau of Immigration control over naturalization in 1896? 15. Why is the foreigner required to give intention of permanent residence? 16. What races are prohibited from naturalization? 17. Why do the Teutonic and Celtic races vote in greater proportions than the Italians, Slavs, etc.? 18. How do the States at present restrict the right of suffrage? 19. Give illustrations of the effect of an educational test on the foreign born in different parts of the country? 20. Through what changes have the forms of city government been passing? 21. Describe the development of plutocracy in Hawaii.

CHAPTER IX:

AMALGAMATION AND ASSIMILATION.

1. What two opposite opinions are expressed by statisticians regarding "race suicide" among Americans? 2. Show the significance of the figures 100,000,000 and 76,000,000 in this connection. 3. What are the causes in this country of a decreasing birth rate? 4. How far do these conditions apply also to the children of immigrants? 5. Illustrate from conditions in Boston. 6. How do city and country districts compare in these respects? 7. What disastrous effects are noticeable in the case of the Irish-American stock? 8. How have these and the earlier races of immigrants tried to protect themselves? 9. What causes, and to what extent, have affected the growth of families among the wealthy and among the farming classes? 10. How does the South compare with the North in respect to reduction in size of families? 11. On the whole what seems to be the effect of the immigration of inferior races upon the older and superior immigrants? 12. Why does the immigration of 1906 present a more serious problem than that of earlier years? 13. What distinctions are to be made between amalgamation and assimilation? 14. What position does the mulatto occupy in our civilization? 15. Distinguish between an inferior and a backward race. 16. Illustrate by different races as they appear in this country. 17. What are the essential qualities of Americanization? Why do farming regions promote assimilation better than the cities? 18. How do the school facilities of the immigrant compare with those of the native American? 19. Compare native and foreign children, also native born children of foreign parents with respect to child labor. 20. Show how the farm community promotes assimilation. 21. What did the records of 1900 show as to the religious belief of the immigrants? 22. How have Catholics and Protestants respectively met the immigrant? 23. What new methods of work is the Protestant church developing? 24. What great work is being done by the social settlements? 25. What is meant by the "institutional church"? 26. How are employers beginning to feel their responsibility for social conditions? 27. What is the strongest Americanizing force for the mature immigrant? 28. From what different standpoints do the native and the foreigner view the suffrage? 29. What are some of the beneficial influences of the Unions? 30. Illustrate from the anthracite coal fields. 31. What plans have been proposed for the distribution of immigrants? 32. What societies have actually attempted some such supervision? 33. Why are the Southern bureaus opposed to the plan of federal distribution? 34. How does it happen that the immigrant is found in the cities and the native born in the country? 35. How far has emigration relieved the pressure upon population in Europe? 36. What dangers are there in a scheme of government distribution of immigrants? 37. What supervision should be established over private employment agencies? 38. How can the government make larger opportunities in the smaller centers? 39. Show what successive tests have been imposed to raise the standard of immigrants? 40. What arguments are there for a "poor physique" test? 41. What would be the effect of the illiteracy test upon different classes of immigrants? 42. Show the fundamental differences between the general immigration laws and the Chinese Exclusion law. 43. How may the hardships to debarred aliens be overcome?

C. L. S. C. COURSE 1907-8

RACES AND IMMIGRANTS IN AMERICA, by John R. Commons.

AMERICAN LITERATURE, by Katharine Lee Bates.

NEWER IDEALS OF PEACE, by Jane Adams.

PROVINCIAL TYPES IN AMERICAN FICTION, by Horace S. Fiske.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1907, to May, 1908, inclusive.

**BRIEF
MEMORANDA**

**Containing
Twenty-Five
Review Questions**

To Members: The following pages contain a copy of the list of questions furnished to readers who wish to review the year's course and add seals to their diplomas. They may be used by the reader for his own notes and as a record of his year's work. To secure the seals application must be made to the Chautauqua office for the pamphlet entitled "Duplicate Memoranda." This pamphlet is furnished free to members on application. It contains these review questions, printed on a good quality of writing paper, to be answered in ink and returned to Chautauqua Institution for credit. The pamphlet also includes the form of application for the annual certificate, and the blank for securing the "Recognized Reading" seal.

In making use of these review questions you are not required to write the answers from memory, but they should be given in your own language.

1. What conditions are necessary for democratic government?

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2. Why have the Scotch-Irish been so influential in producing the American type?

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3. How did slavery affect the negro race in this country?

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4. What qualities unite and what differentiate members of the Jewish race from one another?

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The C. L. S. C. Round Table

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5. What five countries and in what order have contributed most to our population?

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6. What problems are presented by the Syrian and Armenian immigrants?

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7. Under what conditions did Congress give the Bureau of Immigration control over naturalization in 1896?

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8. How does the South compare with the North in respect to reduction in size of families?

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9. Why does the immigration of 1906 present a more serious problem than that of earlier years?

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10. Why is the organization of labor unions more difficult in this than in other free countries?

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11. In what respects was Franklin typical of his time?

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12. Wherein did the political views of Jefferson differ from those of Hamilton?

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13. In what works of Lowell is his strong moral enthusiasm shown?

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14. Quote some passages from Emerson which show his attitude toward life.

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15. Why is the term "non-resistance" hardly suitable to express the newer social forces which are making for peace?

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16. What proportion of the people are reached by the repressive measures of government compared with those who ought to find in the government a means of promoting the needs of the community?

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17. How is our lack of adaptability shown in our attempt to promote farm life in the American way?

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18. How does our attitude toward the sick poor illustrate our fear of trusting government too far?

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19. What fact of great social significance was connected with the Chicago stock yards strike in 1904?

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20. Why has child labor become the evil of this modern age?

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21. What is true of the ages of women workers in this country?

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22. What weakness do we reveal when we insist that war virtues are necessary to patriotism?

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23. What complete stories of New England and New York life have you read this year?

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24. What complete stories of Southern life?

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25. What complete stories of western life?

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C. L. S. C. COURSE 1907-8

RACES AND IMMIGRANTS IN AMERICA, by John R. Commons.

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1907, to May, 1908, inclusive.

**WHITE SEAL
MEMORANDA**

Containing

Seventy-Five

Review Questions

Races and Immigrants in America

1. What agencies are ready to help the process of amalgamation in this country as fast as a common language becomes available?

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2. In what respects did Pennsylvania set the type for the future American nation?

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3. Describe the region in Africa from which the American negro came.

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4. How is the negro handicapped in mechanical occupations?

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5. What progress has he made in cooperation?

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6. What redistribution is going on among the negroes?

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7. What changes in immigration are suggested by the dates 1820 and 1842?

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8. What causes account for our German immigration at the present day?

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9. How has immigration from eastern Europe increased relatively since 1882?

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10. What remarkable changes have taken place in the Italian immigration?

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11. How do wages and taxes in Italy compare with those of other European countries?

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12. How have the corporations met the arguments of the wage earner against immigration?

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30. What was the character of John Woolman?

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31. Who were the chief writers of the first third of the century?

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32. In what other respects did New York take the lead at this time?

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33. What distinctive characteristics had Bryant?

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34. In what respects did Longfellow exert a large influence?

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35. How do Whittier and Emerson compare in their attitude toward nature?

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36. Why is Poe's fame in Europe greater than that of any other American poet?

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37. Why has Walt Whitman made so deep an impression both in Europe and America?

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38. What were the striking features of New England intellectual society in Emerson's day?

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39. What are Lowell's strong points as a critic?

.....

.....

40. Who are our great historians?

.....

.....

41. In what sense did Irving discover England and Spain?

.....

.....

42. What qualities of Hawthorne most impress you?

.....

.....

43. How does the genius of Henry James express itself?

.....

.....

.....

44. What qualities have given Howells a strong hold on his American contemporaries?

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The C. L. S. C. Round Table

45. How does the influence of scientific study show in the writings of Holmes?

.....

46. What influences entered into Hawthorne's early life?

.....

47. Why has Cooper been a deserved favorite among American writers?

.....

NEWER IDEALS OF PEACE.

48. How are the hopes and dreams of our immigrants a prophecy of the future development of city government?

.....

49. What do we mean by "humanity" today compared with the "natural man" discussed by the 18th Century philosophers?

.....

50. How did our early law makers show their distrust of the people in the nature of the laws which they made?

.....

51. How does our attitude of contempt for the foreigner influence the second generation of immigrants?

.....

52. What important activities are now undertaken by the Juvenile courts?

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53. How does America compare with England and France in representative city government?

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54. In what strange position were the twelve hundred police in the stock yards strike placed as regards the protection of crime?

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55. What dream of genuine internationalism is cherished by workingmen?

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56. Why did the public acquiesce in the teamsters' strike?

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57. How is class feeling intensified by such a struggle?

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58. How does it strengthen a materialistic spirit?

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59. What is the educational effect upon children?

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60. How does the nation suffer from premature use of its young people?

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61. Why should child labor be treated as a national question?

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62. What are the chief problems of the modern city?

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63. How is England far ahead of America in relation to the work of women?

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64. How has the domestic problem been affected by the changing conditions of immigration?

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65. What causes may make war seem justifiable even to a democratic nation?

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66. Does it seem probable that the peace foretold by Isaiah is to be merely an absence of war?

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PROVINCIAL TYPES IN AMERICAN FICTION.

67. Note some of Howells' characteristics as a writer which appear in his story of "Silas Lapham."

.....

68. Mention several of the most striking New England types in "Deephaven."

.....

69. What Southern types have been portrayed by Joel Chandler Harris? Give examples of several.

.....

70. What historic background had Mr. Cable for his story of "The Grandissimes?"

.....

71. Why does Mr. Andrew Lang pay a high compliment to "Huckleberry Finn"?

.....

72. What aspects of life in Indiana are portrayed in "The Hoosier Schoolmaster"?

.....

73. What authors have given us vivid pictures of life in the Western mines and on the plains?

.....

74. What literary qualities give "The Virginian" high rank among recent works of fiction?

.....

75. What writers have made studies of Indian life?

.....

SOME OF THE NOTABLE FEATURES APPEARING IN
THE ARENA MAGAZINE
FOR SEPTEMBER

THE CABLE TELEGRAPH SYSTEMS OF THE WORLD.

By J. Henniker Heaton, M. P.

This is probably the most exhaustive and comprehensive presentation of the cable question in its various vital bearings on civilized nations that has appeared in the compass of a magazine essay. It contains a number of extremely valuable tables and is a contribution that will be referred to for years by men interested in this increasingly important issue. The distinguished English statesman concludes after presenting the facts, that: The cable rates are too high and prohibitory; that commerce is hampered and hindered by present monopolies; and that cheaper cables would mean federation and international peace.

SENATOR ROBERT M. LAFOLLETTE FOR PRESIDENT. By Prof. William Kittle, Secretary of the Board of Regents for Normal Schools for Wisconsin.

This is a graphic review of the political career of Senator Robert M. LaFollette, showing precisely where he has stood and how he has fought on every important issue that has come up since he entered the political arena to the present time. A fine new picture of Senator LaFollette from his latest photograph accompanies the article.

THE MEANING OF THE INVASION OF EUROPEAN SOCIALISM. By Henry Frank.

This is one of the most deeply thoughtful contributions that has appeared on a subject that is more and more engrossing the attention of all thinking people interested in political questions of the Old World and the New.

VICTOR HUGO, CRITIC, PROPHET AND PHILOSOPHER.

By B. O. Flower.

An extended criticism of the thought of the great Frenchman as mirrored in his recently published *Intellectual Autobiography* and in his former important criticism of genius, literature and art entitled *William Shakespeare*.

MR. MACKAYE'S "DEMOCRACY AND SOCIALISM;" "YES AND NO." By Hon. George Fred Williams and Prof. Thomas Elmer Will, A. M.

Two contributions which are in the nature of appreciations and criticisms of the important contribution by Mr. MacKaye in the July *Arena*.

THE ECONOMIC BASIS OF THE DIVORCE PROBLEM. By Rev. Rowland D. Sawyer.

An extremely intelligent discussion of this important question, by a leading Massachusetts Congregational minister. Mr. Sawyer has evidently thought upon this question along fundamental lines.

THE BUGABOO OF DIRECT LEGISLATION, A CALM REVIEW OF OBJECTIONS URGED BY THE OPPOSITION. By Linton Satterthwait.

In this paper Mr. Satterthwait discusses in a calm, able and judicial manner the question of Direct Legislation, noticing at length the so-called objections that are being advanced by the upholders of boss-rule or the government of the country by the privileged interests through the money-controlled machine.

DANIEL'S VISION, EVIDENCE THAT IT WAS NOT A VISION BUT AN ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATION. By George Millen Jarvis, author of *The Bible Allegories*.

In this paper Mr. Jarvis discusses an obscure passage of the Old Testament that has given rise to much controversy on the part of Bible critics. The author holds that the so-called vision was an astronomical observation and that many of the obscure passages of the Old Testament appear clear when they are recognized as astronomical observations and interpretations.

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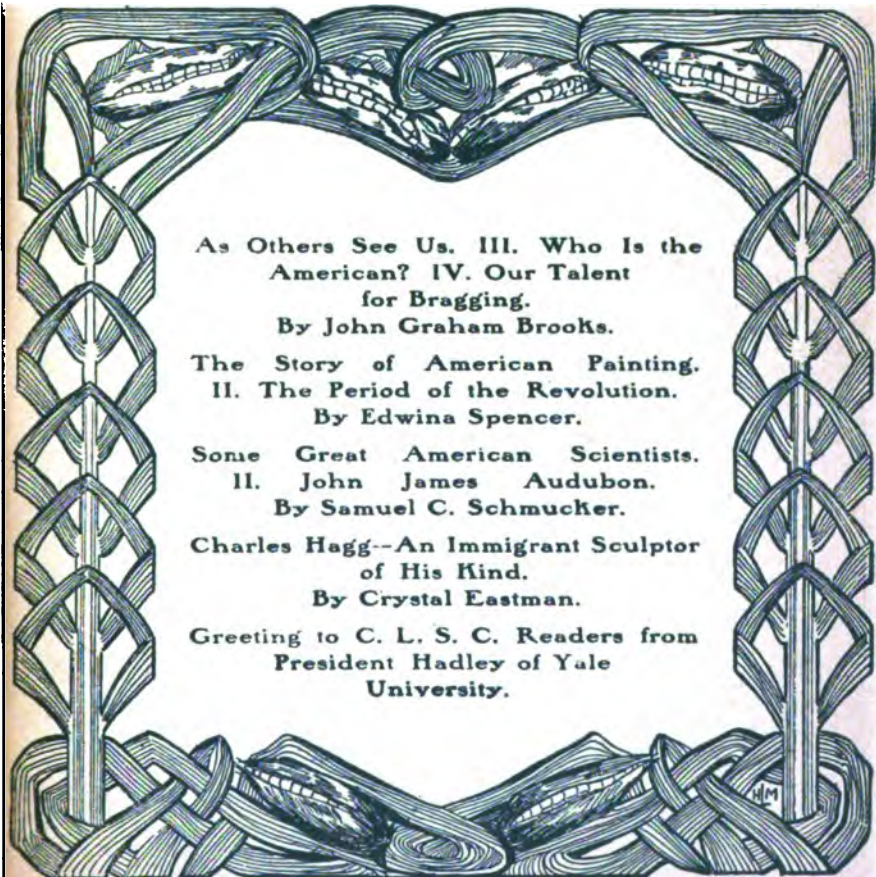
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The CHAUTAUQUAN

*The Magazine of
System in Reading*



As Others See Us. III. Who Is the
American? IV. Our Talent
for Bragging.

By John Graham Brooks.

The Story of American Painting.

II. The Period of the Revolution.

By Edwina Spencer.

Some Great American Scientists.

II. John James Audubon.

By Samuel C. Schmucker.

Charles Hagg--An Immigrant Sculptor
of His Kind.

By Crystal Eastman.

Greeting to C. L. S. C. Readers from
President Hadley of Yale
University.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

THE MAGAZINE OF SYSTEM IN READING

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Alexis de Tocqueville, Author of "Democracy in America"
(See "As Others See Us: America in the Light of Foreign Criticism," by John Graham Brooks, page 174.)

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THE art of America and of the whole world has suffered a great loss. The foremost American sculptor, Saint-Gaudens, died early in August, and there was ended a career of noble usefulness and exceptional distinction. His work must now stand as the best monument to his own life and achievements.

The intellectual and artistic gifts of St. Gaudens came to him from a French father and an Irish mother. But he was brought up in this country, regarded the United States as his fatherland, and was a typical American in the best sense of the word. He was dignified, simple, kindly, serious. He had the highest ideals, but there was nothing ostentatious in the way in which he served and followed them. His sympathy with, his bright insight into and his love of American institutions and history are eloquently attested in his best-known statues—his "Lincoln," his "Sherman," his "Farragut," and so on. These reveal a marvelous understanding of character, of the deeper qualities of his "subjects," and yet they are realistic and natural. Rodin's rare power expresses itself in bizarre, strange effects. St. Gaudens had imagination, but he was always restrained and classical. A student of all schools, no particular tendency or school could claim him. He had the qualities which compel the recognition of all true artists and cultivated lovers of art. His fame was universal, and he not only shed luster on American art, but refuted by his example and his earnestness, his sober genius and his patience, the flippant and superficial criticisms of those who sneer at American art and

believe that nothing but commercialism, the worship of cheap and easy success, is the characteristic of American artists.

Of the man St. Gaudens, a writer in the *New York Tribune*, evidently a personal friend, wrote as follows:

"He had a rare personality. Loyal, generous, modest to the point of shyness, and with a peculiar gentleness of demeanor, he was a perfect type of the high-minded man of genius. No one could have been more helpful than he was to young artists of talent. No one could have been more sympathetic than he was in the appraisal of work by other men. An invincible sense of humor put the last touch to his winning character. To listen to his unassuming but luminous talk on matters of life, art, or literature was a privilege. To hear him when he was in a droll mood, and to see him sketching some of his inimitable caricatures, was both a privilege and a joy."



Prosperity and Government Policy

Once more the cry is heard that the national administration has "ruined business," and destroyed the prosperity of the country. Wall street houses are saying in their circulars that the trouble with the stock market—for the "slump" in stocks has been very severe—is "too much Rooseveltism," and financiers declare in interviews that "socialistic legislation and agitation" is making capital timid and causing widespread fear of confiscation and injury.

Several facts or incidents have served as "fuel to the fire"—notable the "stunning" Standard Oil fine and the suit of the federal government against the American Tobacco Company. The \$29,000,000 fine was imposed by Judge Landis after an inquiry into the financial condition and legal status of the "nominal" defendant, The Indiana Standard Oil Company, as well as of the "real offender," the Standard Oil Co., of New Jersey. The offence of which the jury had found the former guilty was the acceptance of illegal rates on a number of oil shipments. There are many legal points in the case which the Supreme Court will be called upon to decide, and among them is the question of the reasonableness of the fine. That is, assuming that the

company knowingly or even negligently accepted low, unpublished and illegal rates, and assuming that the real defendant can be made to pay the fine assessed against the nominal one, is not the fine excessive and unfair considering that neither company had been convicted before of a similar offence?

But while there is no immediate prospect of collecting the huge fine, the action of the court in imposing the legal maximum has created great excitement in certain financial and business circles. "Confiscation" is the term not a few have applied to it, and many are asking whether the government intends to "persecute" and destroy the great corporations of the country. The attack on the tobacco trust has led to the question, What next?

The majority of the people and of the popular newspapers sympathize with all the steps that the government has taken and see in them no menace to legitimate business and honest industry. If, they say, the corporations do not wish to pay big fines, let them stop violating the law. Is the law against rebates and discrimination unjust? If not, the more effectual the punishment for its violation is, the better for all law-abiding corporations. As to attacks on trusts, it is contended that the administration has not brought a single suit against a harmless combination. It has prosecuted deliberate and known offenders against fair dealing and business morality, and ignored all purely technical violations of the trust act. Where, then, is the menace to the business of the country? Is business another name for monopoly, oppression, extortion, ruthless methods of secret competition? If not, then the enforcement of sound and legal conditions should benefit business instead of injuring it.

This is the opinion expressed not only by followers and political supporters of the President, but by able and independent commercial and industrial organs. Thus the *New York Journal of Commerce*, in discussing Wall street hysteria, said recently:

"The administration is not doing and is not likely to do any-

thing which the victims of hysteria are crying out about and they should take something soothing and not try to make an epidemic of their malady.

"No doubt the stock market has been in a bad way, but these excited people have done much to put it in its present condition. By their own talk and behavior they have largely created the scare at which they are themselves becoming frightened and which they are spreading with their outcries about the administration doing it all. If these hysterical persons would recover their senses and exercise a little cool judgment and self-restraint, they might reassure themselves that doomsday is not at hand, and then they could begin to reassure other people and get things under control. Neither the national government nor state governments are bent upon upsetting things, and if they were they would not be allowed to do it. If there is anything like a crisis at hand it comes from other causes and the way to meet it is not to lose your head and scream, but face it in a business-like way like sober men. Wall street is a bad place for an exhibition of hysterics."

If some of the new State laws, especially those reducing railroad rates, are actually unjust and unreasonable, that fact will be established in the courts, state and federal, and the laws will be set aside. Under the American system no serious injustice can be consciously done to any important interest, and there is no occasion for any hue and cry against the state and national policies now in vogue—policies directed against abuses and evils and conceived in a desire to promote the welfare of all and insure sound and "untainted" prosperity.



States and Federal Courts

The complexity of our governmental system, and the possibility of friction, misunderstanding, and even danger under it, in the absence of proper discretion and mutual forbearance, are strikingly illustrated by the "federal-state rate controversies" in several Southern commonwealths. It is fortunate that some of the controversies have been adjusted by compromise; but others have arisen, or may arise, which involve the same essential question.

The question referred to is this: Where a State duly

adopts a law affecting powerful corporations or other interests, should these obey it, as humble citizens do, until the courts declare it unconstitutional (assuming that its validity is in doubt), and should the question of its constitutionality be first thrashed out and settled in the State courts; or should the corporations be permitted to appeal forthwith to the lower federal courts, secure injunctions either with or without a hearing, and tie-up, paralyze and defy the whole machinery of State government?

This question has grown out of recent acts to reduce freight and passenger rates in Alabama, North Carolina, Virginia and Arkansas. The Governors of these States have vehemently protested against "suspending State laws by injunctions," prohibiting State officials from doing their duty in the way of law-enforcement, and showing distrust and contempt for the State courts by declining to try cases before them before invoking the federal courts. On the other hand, some federal judges, and many editors and public men, have accused the Southern States of fresh attempts at nullification and sedition, and Senator Foraker has used the phrase "new rebellion" to describe the Southern contentions. The federal courts, it is argued, have merely exercised their ordinary powers, have assumed jurisdiction where the Constitution confers it on them, and have taken steps to preserve the rights of all and prevent injustice to any. If the courts had "usurped" power, and had arbitrarily interfered with matters that did not concern them, there would be justice in the outcry; but even then, it is said, the proper course would have been to have appealed to the appellate tribunals.

Ultimately, of course, the Supreme Court of the United States will settle all the issues involved—not only those going to the merits of the rate acts, but also those of jurisdiction and method. If any lower federal court has erred and gone too far, it will be overruled: If all has been correct and legal, the protesting Southern executives will be dislodged from their position, though the question of what expediency

suggests in such situations, and how far it is wise for railroads and other corporations enjoying and seeking favors from the States to resist the will of the people and apply for injunctions to suspend laws, will remain an open and important question.

It should be remembered in this connection that laws duly enacted are presumed to be constitutional until the contrary is affirmatively proven. A rate act is not ruinous and confiscatory unless it deprives the railroad complaining of it of proper earnings on the capital invested. It may require months to ascertain whether a reduced rate is in this sense confiscatory; meantime what? One federal judge has refused to grant an injunction to a road, but instead orders a three-months' actual trial of the new rate law. If the other judges had taken this line of action, no "controversies" would have ensued. Even in the North there are many who feel that it is injudicious for federal judges to suspend state laws hastily by injunction, thus giving private parties the benefit of the doubt and making legislatures and executives temporarily impotent.



The Philippine Popular Assembly

There are about 7,000,000 civilized and Christian natives in the Philippine archipelago, yet only 250,000 of them took part in the recent general election, which was held under an act of Congress providing for the establishment of a sort of territorial legislature in the archipelago, with a lower house elected by qualified voters and an upper house, or senate, composed of the appointed civil commissioners who have till now governed the islands. The interest in the registration and the voting was slight, and some Americans find in this fact evidence of native unfitness for and indifference to self-government. Should not the Filipinos have shown a deep, intense concern in their first national assembly, the first step toward home rule since the annexation? On the other hand, there are many among us who insist that the natives want full independence, and that the election was

ignored by them because it really meant nothing but a change of form, since the popular assembly is to have no power, and the upper house, or the reorganized American commission, is to be the real government.

Neither of these explanations is adequate. There was not as much apathy as many suppose, and it does not indicate either indifference or unfitness. Not all the adult natives were entitled to vote. The suffrage act prescribed certain property and educational qualifications that, though not of a drastic nature, disfranchised the majority of the Filipino laborers. It is estimated by competent correspondents that only about 2,500,000 natives and others might have registered and voted. That about half of this number only went to the polls is not a pleasant fact, but it does not follow that it has any ominous significance. There is abstention from voting in every country, and it is especially marked where the result is a foregone conclusion, as, with us, in certain Southern States. Thousands of Filipinos did not vote because they knew they could not elect their candidates, on account of the unpopular character of their platform.

There are several political parties in the archipelago. The leading ones are the Nationalist, the Independent and the Progressist parties. The last-named is satisfied with our rule and believes in gradual introduction of autonomy. The first two favor immediate independence, and command the support of the majority of the people. The Nationalists cast about 50 per cent. of the vote, the Progressists a little less than one-third. The assembly, which has 81 members, will have an anti-American majority, and its leaders will be men who have opposed American control and sovereignty before and since the establishment of peace and order in the islands.

However, Secretary Taft, who is now en route to the islands and will be present at the opening of the assembly on October 16, believes that the anti-American majority will exercise discretion and, leaving independence to the

future, will labor for the immediate amelioration of conditions in the islands. There are questions of trade, of agricultural improvement, of superior transportation facilities, of taxation, of municipal government and education to be considered. The assembly will, of course, be used as an arena for oratory and agitation against American rule, but within certain limits such agitation is harmless. Most Americans hold that complete autonomy should be granted the Filipinos as soon as they show readiness for that condition, and actual experience in political action and legislation will help to fit them for self-government.



Prohibition in the South

There is little doubt that the average American regards prohibition as an essentially Northern movement, associating it, indeed, with Maine and Kansas. The recent reports from the South, indicating great and rapid gains for prohibition in that section, have astonished the great majority of the people in the eastern and western states. They have caused much interest in the subject and many special articles have appeared setting forth the significant facts as well as the causes of Southern prohibition.

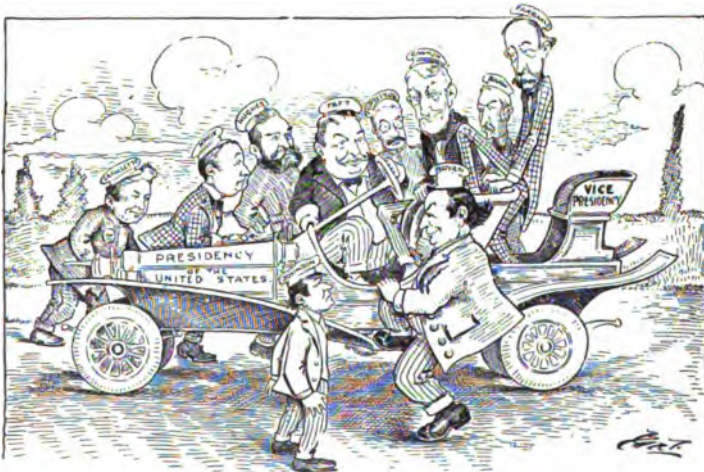
The immediate occasion for the discussion was the adoption by the Georgia legislature of a radical prohibition measure—one making it illegal, after January 1, 1908, to manufacture or sell any intoxicants in the State. The bill was vigorously opposed by a minority, but the sentiment in favor of it was so strong and general that it finally passed by large majorities.

Inquiry showed that the act was not as revolutionary, from a practical point of view, as it had seemed at first. For some time all but a few of the Georgia counties have had prohibition under a county local option law. The new act merely extends the regime of prohibition to those counties in which the larger cities of the State are situated.

What is true of local option prohibition in Georgia is true of Kentucky, Tennessee, Texas, and several other



Three great men in the world of art who have recently died:
Augustus St. Gaudens, Richard Mansfield, and Joseph Joachim.



There doesn't seem to be any great rush for the little back seat.
—From the "Minneapolis Journal."



J. R. Commons



J. G. Brooks



Edwina Spencer

THREE OF OUR AUTHORS.

Mr. John Graham Brooks who contributes this year to *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* a series of articles entitled "As Others See Us: America in the Light of Foreign Criticism," is widely known as an author and lecturer. Mr. Brooks is a graduate of the Harvard Divinity School. He spent three years abroad at the Universities of Berlin, Jena, and Freiberg, was instructor for two years in Harvard University, extension lecturer on economic subjects in the University of Chicago, and for two years he rendered expert service to the Department of Labor at Washington, making the report of 1893 on Workingmen's Insurance in Germany. He is president of the National Consumers' League, and the Social Science Association, and author of a little volume, "The Social Unrest," which has had a wide circulation.

Mr. John R. Commons, author of "Races and Immigrants in America," is professor of Political Economy in the University of Wisconsin. He graduated at Oberlin College, studied at Johns Hopkins University, became professor of Sociology at Oberlin College, then at Indiana University, and later at Syracuse. He was appointed expert agent of the Industrial Commission in 1901 and made personal investigations of labor conditions in this country. A year later he became assistant secretary of the National Civic Federation. He is the author of many important books: "The Distribution of Wealth," "Social Reform and the Church," "Proportional Representation," "Regulation and Restriction of Output by Employers and Unions," "Trade Unions and Labor Problems." He has given special study to immigrant problems.

Miss Edwina Spencer has already made a valuable contribution to Chautauqua literature in her series of articles on "American Sculptors" published in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* four years ago. She has spent many years in the study of art both in this country and in Europe, and has had practical experience as a teacher in the Buffalo Seminary, and has prepared classes for foreign travel, lecturing also and writing for various art journals.

Southern States. The South is generally "dry," except for the large cities. In Tennessee, for instance, only three cities maintain saloons, while in Kentucky only four counties permit the sale of liquor, and even in these there are "dry" precincts. In Texas about ninety counties have done away with saloons. And so in the other Southern States.

The temperance and prohibition propaganda has been carried on with vigor in the South for years, and not a little of the credit for the present situation must be awarded to that factor. It is admitted, however, that the most powerful single cause of the remarkable advance of prohibition in that section has been the necessity of checking or reducing lawlessness and crime among the illiterate and backward elements of the colored population. Prohibition, in other words, is a police measure, a preventive of disorder, friction and violence. Even an organ of the liquor trade has stated that "the saloon as it is conducted in the South, especially the saloon patronized by negroes, is a menace to public order and decency."

It is confidently predicted that in a few years the entire South, including her large industrial centers, will be "dry," save as liquor shall be imported in "original packages" under the interstate commerce law from Northern States. The change that has taken place in twenty-five years in respect to liquor trading and consumption in the South is amazing.



The Nations and the World's Peace

At this writing the indications are that the peace conference at The Hague will adjourn without any notable achievements in the direction of armament limitation, obligatory arbitration, or the effective prevention of war in serious international conflicts. This does not mean that the conference can be fairly charged with complete failure, but it is undoubtedly true that thousands of peace lovers are disappointed at the sum total of its results. However, there is no little consolation for these in other diplomatic and political developments which the last few months have wit-

nessed, developments that spring from and testify to the anxiety of all the great powers to increase the practical guaranties of peace and guard against threatening complications.

New treaties have been negotiated and new understandings reached, the effect of which will be to maintain the existing world equilibrium. France and Japan have signed a convention which binds them to respect the status quo in the Far East, where France has important colonial possessions and interests. Japan and Russia, in addition to the ordinary post-bellum treaties of peace, commerce and amity, have negotiated a treaty which recognizes the sovereignty and territorial integrity of China and pledges the signatories to respect the present distribution of power and influence in Manchuria. England and Russia, so long regarded as "traditional enemies," have signed a comprehensive treaty, covering all matters of difference between them, which will mark a long step forward in civilization. The Indian, Persian and Balkan questions are among the questions adjusted by this treaty, and the menace of Russia in India is at last removed. The military budgets and preparations of these nations should reflect the favorable significance of this diplomatic success.

The only power that has entered into no new understandings is Germany, and for a time her attitude was uncertain. Was she being "isolated" and would she show resentment and distrust? It has been made clear since that Germany is not to be injured by the new groupings of the powers, and that she is not disposed to raise any objections. The Tzar and King Edward have recently visited Emperor William, and it is understood that these visits had considerable political significance. The Macedonian, Balkan, Moroccan and other questions are believed to have been discussed, and the German Emperor apparently expressed his approval of recent and contemplated changes, including the Anglo-Russian convention.

It is true that the anti-European uprising and troubles in Morocco afford some cause for alarm. The reform pro-

gram of the Algeciras convention, which temporarily settled the Moroccan question, has not been carried out by the Sultan and his advisers, owing to internal difficulties, natural inertia, fear of savagely fanatical tribes and the apathy of the powers themselves. The killing of some French and other European residents and workmen at Casa Blanca and other ports, and the massacre of native Jews by Moors, forced intervention by France and Spain under the terms of the Algeciras treaty of 1906. Warships have bombarded the native quarters of Casa Blanca, and troops have been landed to resist the advancing tribesmen from the hinterland. A "holy war" against Europeans and Christians is feared, and in the event of one a long and sanguinary campaign may result in Morocco and throughout North Africa. Such a campaign would revive the whole question of the future of Morocco and her annexation by France—a question full of danger to the peace of Europe, since Germany opposes French designs and claims in that valuable African kingdom.

However, France has given positive assurances of her earnest desire to adhere to the Algeciras convention and to limit herself to the restoration of order and security in the disturbed Moroccan ports and districts. She is ostensibly acting for all Europe, and expects no selfish advantage from the part she is playing. Still, as long as the disturbances last and French troops and war ships are fighting rebellious tribesmen, the capitals of Europe will be distinctly uneasy.



The President and the Taft Candidacy

From Mr. Roosevelt's Provincetown address his supporters and opponents alike learned definitely that in the seventeen months that remain of his administration—and his words in this connection seemed to put a quietus on all third-term talk—no change of policy with regard to trusts, corporations and interstate commerce need be expected. The President emphatically reaffirmed his determination to

enforce the law against rich and poor, to punish wrongdoing and work for greater governmental control over corporate industry and the business use of great wealth. He also reaffirmed his belief in progressive taxation of inheritances and incomes, in effective insurance of labor against industrial risks, and in national incorporation of all companies engaged in commerce in more than one State.

That address was not calculated to "reassure" the speculative financiers who had been clamoring for indications of a political reaction. And what of the post-Roosevelt regime? Secretary Taft has formally opened his campaign for the Republican nomination for the Presidency. His Columbus speech, with those that followed it, sounded his "slogan," and he is to be judged now not so much by his connection with the Roosevelt policies—which he has defended—as by his utterances as a candidate to succeed Mr. Roosevelt. He has been speaking for himself, and indicating his own opinions and intentions, not hesitating to express, on some points, his dissent from Mr. Roosevelt's views. On the whole, and in regard to all practical and immediate questions of legislation, Mr. Taft thoroughly agrees with the President. He virtually announces a continuation of the Roosevelt campaign in the event of his nomination and election. Specifically, these are the things he believes in:

Further legislation for the control and regulation of railroads and other public utilities, to prevent stock watering and manipulation, the investment of one road's capital in the securities of another, and the subordination of transportation to "high finance."

Prohibition and punishment—by imprisonment if necessary—of all oppressive and injurious conspiracies in restraint of trade; and the legalization of reasonable agreements or combinations that are beneficial to the public or at least perfectly harmless.

Moderate revision of the tariff law, so as to eliminate excessive protection and favoritism, the revision, however, not to be undertaken until after the next national election.

State taxation of incomes and inheritances, not only for revenue, but to discourage "swollen fortunes" and their accumulation.

National income and inheritance taxation in the event of the government finding itself in need of more revenue, but not until then.

Secretary Taft does not believe in the desirability of national incorporation of all companies engaged in interstate business—at any rate, not for the present. He thinks the necessity for this step is not clear enough to warrant a demand for it. It might produce litigation and commercial embarrassment in connection with attempts to exclude trusts from interstate commerce, and the harm might overbalance the good. But ultimately, Mr. Taft admits, national incorporation may be found necessary in the control of trusts.

The assailants of the President are not pleased with Mr. Taft's exposition of his views. They find it too Rooseveltian, even if moderate in tone. The supporters of the Roosevelt policies are correspondingly gratified, and the Taft candidacy is said by fair-minded observers to have been considerably advanced by the Secretary's utterances.

A number of test ballots and straw votes indicate that all over the West Mr. Taft is gaining ground. He is first choice in many States and second choice in others, the first in these being Mr. Roosevelt himself, provided he can be induced to run again. Next to Taft, is apparently Senator La Follette, though in the East there is talk of Hughes as a strong and independent candidate. In Pennsylvania Senator Knox is being boomed with some vigor, but in the country at large the Knox movement is scarcely perceptible. The Taft candidacy is evidently assuming commanding importance, and the opposition to it in Ohio, from the followers of Senator Foraker, seems to be collapsing.

Note and Comment

In the *World Today* for July there is an amusing little sketch entitled "A Song of the Tower of Babel" by William Hard, which narrates in entertaining fashion the manner in which the Slovenians and Croats of South Chicago may be made into good Americans through the Irish influence. The story is not only entertaining but suggestive, and Tom Moore, who, in his day, roundly abused America, may have done more than he realized through his songs to aid us in our immigration problem. You should read how Bragomovitch, whose father was a Croatian, sings with deep feeling "The Harp that once through Tara's Halls."



American preëminence in the movement for international peace received a fresh impetus in one of the recent meetings of the Hague Peace Conference. Joseph H. Choate, formerly Ambassador to England and now one of the United States delegates to the Conference, in an eloquent speech urged the creation of a permanent international high court of justice. The committee having charge of the matter had failed to come to an understanding on the question of the allotment of judges but Mr. Choate's speech resulted in the appointment of a committee to consider the question further, and thus meet the universal demand for action in the establishment of such a court.



Chautauqua students now deep in the fascinating problem of immigration and will find a question of live current interest in the study of our treatment of Oriental immigrants on the Pacific coast. The Japanese trouble in San Francisco had scarcely ceased to be a matter of vital interest when further reports from the State of Washington told of fresh American outrages against Orientals, this time Hindoos employed in the mills. The merits of the question cannot yet be determined but the violence against the Asiatics seems to have been of the usual unpardonable nature, many of the Sikhs being brutally handled and many more terrorized by an unmanageable mob. As the Hindoos are British subjects international complications may ensue as in the earlier trouble with the Japanese in San Francisco.



The world of art has been deprived this summer of four great figures, two of them Americans, Augustus St. Gaudens and Richard Mansfield. The other two, Joseph Joachim, the celebrated German violinist, and Edward Grieg, the Norwegian composer, were perhaps even more famous for each was of world-wide reputation.

The loss to American art due to the death of St. Gaudens can scarcely be estimated. He was our greatest sculptor and though he had long suffered from ill health it was hoped he would be spared a few years longer and give to America other masterpieces as great as the statue of Lincoln in Chicago and the Shaw memorial in Boston. (See sketch of St. Gaudens in first editorial of Highways and Byways.)



Richard Mansfield, the most celebrated of American actors since Joseph Jefferson is likewise a great loss to American art. Opinion differed somewhat as to the merits of his impersonations in various of his roles but concerning others there was no dissenting note of disapproval. Greater than his acting was his influence in uplifting the stage. It was his ambition to appear in only the greatest dramatic masterpieces and these he presented with the greatest care and accuracy, without regard to the expense involved. Although he had several times announced his intention of retiring from the stage he was nevertheless, at the time of his death, in the prime of life, and seemed destined to many more years of activity.



Grieg, the Norwegian composer, ranked with, if not above, the greatest composers of our day, Richard Strauss, St. Saens, and Elgar. His music is widely popular with the general public as well as cultured musicians and some of his compositions, as, notably, the Peer Gynt Suite and various piano selections, were known to every music lover. Grieg did a great work in harmonizing much of the beautiful Norwegian folk music and bringing it to a final form for effective instrumental performance. Grieg was diminutive in size and frail in physique. His home, a cottage, was at Trullhaugen, near Bergen, and his special "den" contained only a piano, a music shelf and a desk. Visitors from all nations used to call upon him, and some of them were fond of souvenirs. It probably was for this reason that on his desk could be seen this note: "Please do not steal the scores. No value to you, but to me."



Joseph Joachim, the most celebrated of German violinists, was born in Hungary of Jewish parents in 1831. He passed a long life of the greatest distinction in the world of music, receiving early instruction under Mendelssohn. He was accorded the highest honors in both England and Germany, and was Director and Conductor of the Royal Academy of Music in Berlin.



A Century of Foreign Criticism on The United States--A Study of Progress.

III. Who Is the American?

By John Graham Brooks

THE foreign students of this country have far less difficulty with our institutions, our government, our education and general resources than with our more personal life. What has been done on this continent or left undone may be brought to judgment. But, Who is the American? He is the main object of inquiry.

Sometimes the question is, What kind of human being are they making in the United States? Again it is, What institutions are here being shaped by the American character? In both, it is the sort of man and woman in the making that is of fundamental interest to the inquirer. What, then, is the human product called the American?

The English historian, Freeman, used to speak of us as a lot of Englishmen who had strayed from home. We had taken with us a complete outfit of political and other traditions that we were working out under slightly different conditions. When he came here in 1883, he still said, "To me most certainly the United States did not seem a foreign country, it was simply England with a difference." Less than

*Mr. Brooks' series of articles will run throughout the reading year (September-May). The September articles were: I. "The Problem Opened"; II. "Concerning Our Critics."

thirty years ago Bryce wrote, "the American people is the English people modified in some directions by the circumstances of its colonial life and its more popular government, but in essentials the same."

In 1795 Timothy Dwight was chosen President of Yale College. From that time until the publication of his *Travels* in four volumes, he journeyed some 14,000 miles in New England and New York, knowing that eastern country probably better than any other man. In his 477th letter he thus speaks of Boston: "The Bostonians, almost without exception, are derived from one country and a single stock. They are all descendants of Englishmen, and of course are all united by all the bonds of society: language, religion, government, manners and interests."* Nearly half a century ago, Godley could speak of Boston as the best place for the stranger to see national characteristics "in their most unmixed and most developed state."†

Boston was then puritan; today it is catholic. It has nearly thirty nationalities. Yet until the Civil War, we still had confident descriptions of the American, as if he stood sufficiently apart and disengaged from other peoples to admit of characterization. The Italians discovered us, throngs of French, Dutch, and Germans very early made their homes among us. There was yet enough in common, until the middle of the last century, to make the question, what is the American, at least intelligible. But what meaning can it have today? New York is already the chief Jewish city of the world. It will very soon have a million Hebrews. They come with qualities and traditions so diverse that their competition among themselves (as between German and Russian Jews) is as relentless as it is against any other class of the community.

Intelligent enough to leave petty gambling and drunkenness to the Christians, they are appropriating rapidly the very forms of property which give them the strongest grip

*1. Dwight's *Travels*, 1821, Vol. I, p. 506.

†2. *Letters from America*, London, 1844, Vol. II, p. 136.

upon the destinies of the city. Their thrift, their temperance, their passion for individualism already modify our life, although in our eighty-five millions they are a tiny fraction of a million and a half. Christians have never hesitated to classify and characterize the Jews as specifically this or that. But as we know them better, the characterization becomes blurred and uncertain. How confidently we have repeated it! The Jew is not a "producer." "He swaps and bargains and exchanges, but he shuns the processes of producing wealth." It is very slovenly reasoning to shut out these trading activities from "production;" but apart from this, the slightest observation would correct this easy judgment. One of our great industries is the clothing trade, which in its entire process is largely in the hands of Jews, as other industries are in part on their purely "productive" side.

I have asked a great many people what one quality could surely be fixed upon the American. I have a long list of answers, but the one that heads the list in point of frequency is that the American, above all other peoples, is "adaptable." It is of course meant by this, that the young American is early thrown upon his own resources; that our society has such mobility and range of opportunity as to create the capacity for self-adjustment—of falling upon the feet—in whatever part of the world one alights. But are we more "adaptable" than the Jew? With centuries of savage hounding hither and yon, what race ever had such occasion and necessity to learn adaptability as this one? Is there any delay in adjusting themselves to our economic and educational opportunities? If the Jew has a department store in a Southern city, he succeeds partly because he is so flexible in falling in with the peculiarities of blacks and whites alike. To say Miss or Mrs. to the colored purchaser is to get her trade. I hear it charged against the Jew that he will not stay upon a farm. As farming has been done, this refusal of the Jew without capital is an assured sign of his intelligence. There is

already indication, that when farming is raised to its proper level, when science and good business methods are applied to it, when, in a word, it is commercialized and thoroughly worth doing, the Jew will be at the front in this work. To say that this people loves money, is sharp at a trade, has push, is aggressive, is merely to repeat what no end of foreigners have ascribed to Yankees generally. An Englishman who did business for several years in this country between 1840 and 1850, warns his countrymen against the Americans in these words, "Let him gain a foothold and before you are aware of it, you will find his hand laid upon all you possess, from your pocket handkerchief to the house that covers your head."* A friend, who has published a monograph on race questions, tells me there is one trait that he is sure is peculiar to Hebrews. Their aggressiveness has the unfailing trait of "intellectual impudence." *Frechheit* is a fair translation of this modified "impudence" and I have often heard in Germany that the truest mark of the Jew was this same *Frechheit*. But to what people under the sun would this name not be affixed, if they were as persistent and successful in playing the accepted competitive game as are the Jews? This labeling fares ill, even with a race so sharply outlined as the Hebrew.

What, then, shall be said of the American, now that nearly fifty nationalities are knitted into our national texture? In great areas of the Northwest one seems to be in Scandinavia, as large parts of several cities are like another Leipzig. We have "little Chinas," and "little Polands." In Lowell, Massachusetts, one may find himself in a Greece that is not even little. We have a hundred "little Italys" in our cities, and whole villages of them in the South and West. As for Eastern and Southern Europeans, they are so in evidence in industries like iron and mining that an American laborer seems foreign and out of place. These piebald millions are now so interwoven with all that we are, at so many points we have been changed by their presence,

*Brown's "America."

that to silhouette the American becomes yearly more baffling.*

The early writers have no misgivings. In the following chapter we shall see above twenty confident traits set down to index the American off from other nationalities. Especially after the Civil War, this confidence abates. The perplexities become too obvious. The railway facilities bring the visitor into contact with too many kinds of Americans. In 1889, I met a German correspondent who had been four times to the United States. He had done high class work for what was then thought to be the ablest Continental paper, the *Cologne Gazette*. He said he brought back from his first journey a clearly conceived image of the American. He was "sharp-visaged, nervous, lank, and restless."† After the second trip this group of adjectives was abandoned. He saw so many people who were not lank or nervous; so many who were rotund and leisurely that he rearranged his classification, but still with confidence. After the third trip, he insisted that he could describe our countrymen, but not in *external* signs. He was driven to express them in terms of character. The American was resourceful, inventive, and supreme in the pursuit of material ends. "My fourth trip," he said, "has knocked out the final attempt with the others. I have thrown them all over like a lot of rubbish. I now don't know what the American is, and I don't be-

*"In nineteen of the northern states of our Republic the number of the foreign-born and their immediate descendants exceeds the number of the native-born. In the largest cities the number is two-thirds, and even three-quarters. There are more Cohens than Smiths in the New York Directory. Two-thirds of the laborers in our factories are foreign-born or of foreign parentage. New England is no longer Puritan but foreign."—"Aliens or Americans," by B. Grose, p. 236.

†"The Yankee is a tall, gaunt, yellow-faced, hungry looking dyspeptic. He is generally engaged in selling some very odd article, such as a button-hook and a cigarette-holder combined, or a pair of socks which change into an umbrella when you touch a hidden spring."

De Nevers, with many years experience in the United States sums up his conclusions as to our fundamental characteristics thus: "The love of gain, the spirit of practical achievement, curiosity, a rather supercilious exclusiveness and contempt for the foreigner." *L'Amé Americaine*, II, p. 94.

lieve anyone else knows." He still thought we were more in a hurry than any other folk. Beyond that, he was certain of no distinctive difference. On this remnant of confidence there is now a very curious comment. So competent an observer as Professor Münsterberg, eager to set German opinion right on America, says we are not even in a hurry. This conclusion has great surprises for us and is worth quoting.

"It has often been observed, and especially remarked on by German observers, that in spite of his extraordinary tension, the American never overdoes. The workingman in the factory, for example, seldom perspires at his work. This comes from a knowledge of how to work so as in the end to get out of one's self the greatest possible amount.

"Very much the same may be said of the admirable way in which the Americans make the most of their time. Superficial observers have often supposed the American to be always in a hurry, whereas the opposite is the case. The man who has to hurry, has badly disposed of his time, and, therefore, has not the necessary amount to finish any one piece of work. The American is never in a hurry."*

Here is a conflict of opinion over a generalization that has been world-wide and is surely among our own beliefs about ourselves. This scholar who has been among us fourteen years now takes from us even this source of pride. If our pre-eminence as hustlers is to be put in question, what, pray, is left to us? One writer, after journeys in Canada and Australia, first notes that the American can only be detected by his speech. He finds us so like the Australians,

*More recently still, as good an observer as H. W. Horwill finds us conspicuous for our careless leisurely ways. He writes in an English monthly that we can potter and dawdle as if life were a continuous holiday. He has an array of evidence to make good his point. Think of the time spent by thousands of smaller business men in the innumerable "orders" that fill our towns! Study our sports from racing to baseball at which vast multitudes are constantly seen! Even when we are hard pushed and ought to hurry, he thinks us very awkward. An American who is in a hurry he says "will unhesitatingly take a car for two or three blocks rather than cover the same distance more quickly by walking, just as he will wait two or three minutes for an elevator to take him down a flight of ten steps, or will bring the resources of his typewriter to bear upon a postcard—which could be more speedily written by hand."

that were it not for our "intonation," he should think himself in Victoria or New South Wales. He then travels some months through the West and South, concluding at last that "there are as many different *ways* of speaking in various parts of the United States as there are in England. "I sometimes thought myself in Yorkshire, sometimes among London cockneys, and sometimes among the best bred people."

American "accent" (a word covering almost everything except accent) has played a great role in marking us off among the nations. Yet this traveler, when he comes to judge the people as a whole, is in despair. "I can," he says, "tell how they speak in any one of a dozen sections, but not how *the* American speaks."

Our trouble is scarcely less if we confine ourselves to the American woman or the American child. From Liancourt to Bryce, our women folk have proved a shining mark for flattering characterization, but the young girl and the child have had lampooning enough. Nor is there against a good deal of this criticism the slightest honest defense. That far too many of our children are grievously undisciplined, "lack reverence," are "loud and ill-mannered," registers the most obvious fact. Yet it is a partial one, not in the least inclusive of the American child.* Most of these travelers live in hotels and boarding houses. It was here that many of them took their impressions of youthful deportment. The fidgety and noisy were of course most in

*"And then the children—babies I should say, if I were speaking of English bairns of their age; but, seeing that they are Americans, I hardly dare to call them children. The actual age of these perfectly civilized and highly educated beings may be from three to four. One will often find five or six such seated at the long dinner table of the hotel, breakfasting and dining with their elders, and going through the ceremony with all the gravity and more than all the decorum of their grandfathers."—Anthony Trollope.

Sixty years ago an English merchant who was "struck dumb" by the precocity of the American child, says he knew of one that ran away from home when only five months old. When caught, the child was master of the situation—"I heard they's going to call me Jotham and I jes' lit out."

evidence and thus are etched into many an unlovely picture in this foreign literature. Writers like Thackeray and Miss Martineau, who see the child in our better homes, defend us most handsomely. Thackeray was charmed by the gay and playful familiarities between parent and child, much preferring it to the more formal relation which he recalls in England. Miss Martineau devotes a chapter to our children. She is careful to say that she finds everywhere "spoiled, pert, and selfish children." She sees that many are given too much rein and left without discipline. These exceptions do not, however, lessen her confidence that the freedom and familiarity are upon the whole a distinct gain for the child and for society. What moves her most to this conclusion is the general happiness of American children:

"I have a strong suspicion that the faults of temper so prevalent where parental authority is strong and where children are made as insignificant as they can be made, and the excellence of temper in America, are attributable to the different management of childhood in the one article of freedom."*

Mental alertness she also thinks has surer development.

"If I had at home gone in among eighty or a hundred little people, between the ages of eight and sixteen, I should have extracted little more than 'Yes, ma'am,' and 'No, ma'am.' At Baltimore, a dozen boys and girls at a time crowded around me, questioning, discussing, speculating in a way which enchanted me."

About the American woman there are the same cheerful generalizations. Many chapters are devoted to her. Early writers note her pruderies, her frigid reserve before miscellaneous gallantries, and her "lack of temperament." Ampère and Fanny Kemble are astonished at the extreme deference that men pay her, especially on the street and in all public places.† That a young girl can travel unattended

*Vol. III. Pg. 163. English Ed., "Society in America."

†De Tocqueville says: "It has often been remarked, that in Europe a certain degree of contempt lurks even in the flattery which men lavish upon women, although a European frequently affects to be the slave of woman, it may be seen that he never sincerely thinks her his equal. In the United States, men seldom compliment women, but they daily show how much they esteem them." Vol. II., p. 260.

from State to State, secure from insult or importunity, calls out admiring comment from critics of every nationality. Especially since the habit of traveling has developed with the railway, few things have more frequent mention than this serene young woman journeying alone and unalarmed where and when she will. In a severely critical lecture on the United States, I heard the historian von Treitschke say to his class in Berlin, that even the enemies of America saw in this deference to the unprotected woman "a most hopeful sign of civilization." That she would be unsafe in Europe, he thought, marked in this one respect, inferiority in the European social morals. Even if at home and abroad, we have not rather overworked this solitary young lady *en voyage*, she is too individual a phenomenon to be of much use to us.

Miss Faithful in her struggles to characterize our girls quotes the following:*

"the most fascinating little despot in the world; an oasis of picturesque unreasonableness in a dreadful desert of common sense."

"champagny—glittering, foamy, bubbly, sweet, dry, tart; in a word, fizzy! She has not the dreamy, magical, murmury loveableness of the Italian, but there is a cosmopolitan combination which makes her a most attractive coquette; a sort of social catechism—full of answer and question."

This does not wholly satisfy her, but her own conclusion is as tremulous in its uncertainty as the rest, save in its good will,

"Miss Alcott's Joes and Dolly Wards, Bret Harte's Miggles and M'liss, and Mr. James's Daisy Miller,—indeed, I feel more and more bewildered as I try to think which should be taken as strictly typical—save the one,

"So frankly free,

So tender and so good to see,

Because she is so sweet."

When writer after writer says America is "the Paradise for women," we have a formula that submits to closer tests.

I was once on a Fall River boat with an English clergyman who had a passion for sociological statistics. He was

*Three Visits to America, p. 316.

so struck by the numbers of people puffing at pipes, cigarettes, or cigars that he made conscientious note of it, telling me that ninety per cent. of our people must be users of tobacco. This appeared excessive and I asked him where he got his estimates. He said he had counted all the people smoking and not smoking in the large space into which we came from the wharf. He was much shaken, when I told him that all his reckoning had been made in the boat's smoking room.

America as the "Paradise for Women" is an improvement on the statistical reflections of this clergyman, but it too has to be challenged. As compared to most of Europe, burdens are here lighter and opportunities more open for women who must work for a living. But there are some millions of wives of wage-earning men and other millions of farmers' wives. Is it quite a Paradise for them? As in summer months, "There is nobody in town" to leisurely city folk, so this Paradise is confined to a relatively small section of the community. Even for this limited portion, it is a "Paradise" that excites reflections. To have the fewest responsibilities; to have the children cared for by others; to have a good bank account and the consequent leisure to do what one will, usually depicts this paradise. It is especially and always to have a good deal of so-called independence and freedom from the narrower household cares. To have a husband willing to slave while he furnishes the cash and is content to stay behind if he is not wanted, always makes the heaven of the American woman more complete in the eyes of these foreign naturalists.

It was left for a French scholar to say the final and triumphant word upon woman's real place in the United States. He finds the propelling force even of our material masteries in our women. In France and in Europe generally the woman must, he says, suit her expenditure to her husband's earnings. Be they small or great, this duty she meets. But the glory and distinction of the American woman, that which sets her apart as upon a pedestal from all her kind in other

lands, is that she *makes her husband earn what she wishes to spend*. Petty obstacles like business rivals and trade conditions are not to be considered. What this exigent household queen wants, she must have and she *gets* it. It is not primarily the man, but the American woman who commands the business initiative. The root of all our commercial greatness is her ambition. Because her heart is set on those first necessities—the luxuries and superfluities—for that reason the railroads, stock exchanges, mills, and mines are driven at white heat. It is man's business to work all the wonders of our business world in order that wifely expectations may not go unsatisfied. We thus get at the real origin of the much noted American deference to woman. Fanny Kemble speaks for scores of these critics when she expresses her surprise that American men show such humility toward all women, even the humblest. The commonest explanation of this attitude is the relative scarcity of women during the three or four generations when men were greatly in excess. To the average man seeking a mate under these circumstances politeness becomes his chief asset. I have heard a lady much in the social world say that the manners of boys varied according to the ratio of sexes at social entertainments. "If the young men are few and the girls many, the boys lose their grace and gallantry, and most of them act like boors." This Frenchman does much better. To him women evolve not only as Queen and Dictator, but as the propelling force behind all our commercial "initiative," "self direction," invention, and other greatness. This torch bearer among the critics did not offer his explanation as a compliment to our women. But never have they received such flattery. It puts man as the weaker vessel in his proper place. We can now understand the document which Emily Faithful reproduces from the early dawn of the "Woman's Movement." She vouches for this speech in which Mrs. Skinner, two generations ago, sets us right as to man's place in the social order.

"Miss President, feller wimmen, and male trash generally,

I am here today for the purpose of discussing woman's rights, recussing her wrongs, and cussing the men.

"I believe sexes were created perfectly equal, with the woman a little more equal than the man.

"I believe that the world today would be happier if man never existed.

"As a success man is a failure, and I bless my stars my mother was a woman. (Applause).

"I not only maintain those principles, but maintain a shiftless husband besides.

"They say man was created first—Well, s'pose he was. Ain't first experiments always failures?

"The only decent thing about man was a rib, and that went to make something better. (Applause).

"And they throw into our faces about taking an apple. I'll bet five dollars that Adam boosted her up the tree, and only gave her the core.

"And what did he do when he was found out? True to his masculine instincts he sneaked behind Eve, and said, 'Twant me; 'twas her,' and woman had to father everything, and mother it too.

"What we want is the ballot, and the ballot we're bound to have, if we have to let down our back hair, and swim in a sea of gore."

Another phase of this topic troubles our critics. Who is the "good," who is the "bad" American? To stiff conservatives, especially if they held the offices—the real American was always one who accepted rather slavishly the party platform. Carlier was thinking of our politics, when he said, "The bad American is usually the best American." To show independence or to stand for some larger policy has ever brought out the reproach of being "un-American." We probably did not have five greater or more useful men in the half century that followed the Revolution than the reticent, educated, and resourceful young Swiss who landed here in 1790, Albert Gallatin. Though an aristocrat by birth, with easy honors awaiting him at home, he turned his back upon them because of republican sympathies that came to him like a religious conversion. The word democrat has no nobler sense than that which Gallatin put into every stroke of his great public service in this country. Yet throughout his most active career, he had to submit to this

taunt of being a bad American. Men with very proud names were guilty of this ungenerous flouting. In our own day another splendid figure suffered from the same unhandsome conduct. Carl Schurz was showered with honors whenever principle allowed him to "stand pat," but at any brave departure, he was told that he was "no true American." When he was fighting for some honor and humanity toward the Indians; when he tried to temper some of the blundering excesses of our reconstruction methods, as well as during his long and heroic struggle for the elementary decencies of Civil Service Reform, Mr. Schurz had to meet this coarse upbraiding of being un-American. He probably was never so genuinely an American as when that term was most hotly denied him, and this was as certainly true of Gallatin. (To fight for the next step that constitutes progress should best define the American spirit.) It should be the essence of this spirit to expand the conditions of political and social growth. Yet those who have struck out most resolutely for this enlargement have had to take the anathema—"no true American."

The first speech I heard in Massachusetts in favor of the Australian ballot was attacked by a well-known jurist as being un-American and therefore to be condemned. In the West during the stormy discussions over free silver and the gold standard, I attended many meetings. None of the peppery phrases so stuck in my mind as those that charged the friends of the "single standard" with being un-American. I can still see a trembling and scornful finger pointing at some of us who had asked questions. The speaker stirred all hearts by comparing the doubters to Judas. As he had bartered his soul, so had the gold men bartered theirs. "The soul of the true American has departed from them forever." Even at a meeting for the discussion of immigration, as good an American as I have ever known was angrily denied the name, because he steadfastly opposed plans for restricting immigrants.

There is nothing more hopeful at the present moment

in our country than the spirit at work in our new forestry policy. It is, fundamentally, the same use of government powers to protect large and general interests as against narrow and immediate private interests that have come into sharp conflict with public welfare. Yet I have heard the policy condemned with extreme venom because it was not the American way of doing things. The most dangerous kind of ignorance can hide behind this name. A New Hampshire farmer and dairyman, irritated by the standard of cleanliness which the milk inspector submitted to him, burst out in reply, "Yes, I've read a good deal in the agricultural paper about this foolishness, but I'm an American and I propose to stay on bein' an American." In this sorry instance, to hold with sulky tenacity to the beaten path becomes the definition of this proud title. Few really illustrious names have wholly escaped the epithet—un-American. Washington and Hamilton lost all claim to it at the hands of the Jeffersonian pamphleteers. Nor did Lincoln go unscathed by northern copperheads. When compelled to suspend habeas corpus in the heaviest days of 1863, the hiss of un-Americanism was on every hand. The most heroic moments in our history are precisely those in which men have dared to stand pluckily by some cause against which popular fury had temporarily turned. Young Quincy's defence of Captain Preston of "the Boston Massacre" was a splendid bit of gallantry. The frenzy against Preston in the community burned so high that the elder Quincy wrote indignantly to his son, "My God! Is it possible? I will not believe it." The son answered that it was in his oath to aid those charged with crime, the guilt of which was not yet proved. To the angry reproach that his career would be ruined, he answered, "I never harbored the expectation, nor any great desire, that all men should speak well of me. To inquire my duty and to do it, is my aim." Months had not passed before it became plain that an atrocious injustice would have been committed to refuse this defence. Yet for moral intrepidity that adds lustre to those days and to

all days, this young man was pronounced a bad and faithless American.

In the winter of 1882, when James Russell Lowell was our Minister to England, he had to face delicate matters growing out of the "Coercion Act" against Ireland. Two Secretaries of State (Evarts and Blaine) had successively paid tribute to Mr. Lowell's "sagacity, prudence, and fairness." Yet in and out of Congress, the storm raged against him. At a great meeting in New York, "sickening sycophancy" and "Apostate to true Americanism" were among the pretty compliments paid to him.

As it has been in the past, so in the future this high test of moral courage will remain to try men's souls. Politics as well as religion tends to harden into institutional and dogmatic forms. To challenge these, to break the enclosing crust so far as to give way for the inner life and growth, will ask of men to the end of time this same hardihood. The best Americans have ever been and will continue to be those, who, while standing for social stability and order, dare to stand also for the changes that widen into social progress.



IV. Our Talent for Bragging

I approach this chapter with misgivings. When using the essential portions of it several times as a lecture, I have seen individuals leave the hall in a state of unmistakable displeasure. It was once given as the first of a series on the general subject with which these articles deal. A protest was made to those having the lectures in charge that their continuance ought not to be permitted. As this was impracticable, a good many people took the question of continuing into their own hands and stayed away. It was maintained that "no true American would talk so about his country." As this lecture was immediately followed by one on the Sensitiveness of the American,* it brought a humorous confirmation which somewhat softened the asperities of the situation.

What was least tolerable to this wounded patriotism was an itemized comparison between some of our prancing Fourth of July oratory from eminent men, and the broad caricatures of Dickens. In the "American Notes" and "Martin Chuzzlewit" our genius for self laudation is travestied by this master with a free hand. Yet in our own oratorical zone we can find the literary equivalents of Dickens' choicest specimens. One is honestly disconcerted as to which is the parody. When a senator can say at a banquet given by his constituents, that "America as a nation has now passed through the fiery furnace of doubt and obloquy, convincing the most ignorant of her foes and the most envious of her would-be rivals that our Republic stands at last as unstained in her matchless record as she is superior in all the higher attainments of a true moral and spiritual civilization," we think instinctively of the passages in "Martin Chuzzlewit." Does the the most riotous burlesque of Dickens much outdo this senatorial outburst?

It is of course true that among nations, we do not hold a monopoly of gasconade. It is very possible that the fête-

*Chapter VII of the present series.

day literature of other nations would furnish rodomontade equal to our best. That would only enlarge the geographical area of the plague. There are, moreover, so many ways of bragging. It may be stentorian and grandiloquent like that of Victor Hugo. It may be the sheer bluster of a Col. Chick, "What is America *for* but to reform the world?" It may appear in the ineffable strut of the Prussian lieutenant, or in the unvoiced but unmistakable *assumption* of superiority that the world has very generally associated with the British. This has often a most naive and unabashed statement, as when Alexander Mackay says :*

"England has her fixed position in the family of nations, and at the head of civilization—a position which she has long occupied, and from which it will be some time ere she is driven. We care not, therefore, what the foreigner says or thinks of us. He may look or express contempt as he walks our streets, or frequents our public places. His praise cannot exalt, nor can his contempt debase us, as a people."

This special form of bragging is attributed to us :

"Other nations boast of what they are or have been, but the true citizen of the United States exalts his head to the skies in the contemplation of what the grandeur of his country is *going* to be. Others claim respect and honor because of the things done by a long line of ancestors; an American glories in the achievements of a distant posterity.

"If an English traveler complains of their inns and hints his dislike to sleeping four in a bed, he is first denounced as a calumniator and then told to wait a hundred years and see the superiority of American inns to British."[†]

Even that learned French publicist, M. Chevalier, who is very friendly, cannot help warning us against all illusions about the real thing in matters of national pre-eminence. He says :

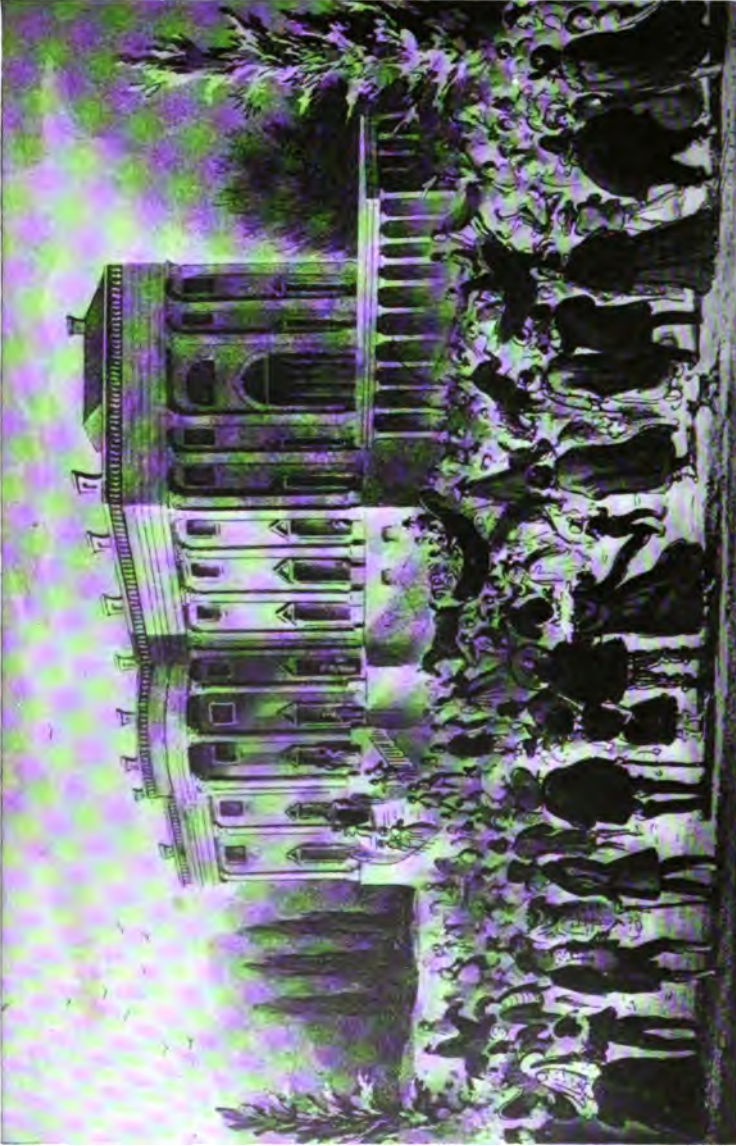
*The Western World, p. 285.

Bryce says, "An impartially rigorous censor from some other planet might say of the Americans that they are at this moment less priggishly supercilious than the Germans, less restlessly pretentious than the French, less pharisaically self-satisfied than the English."—Vol. II, p. 635.

[†]This exact comment de Amicis makes on the people as he journeys about Holland, "They are always talking of what they are going to do and almost never of what they have done," but, curiously enough, interprets this in terms of humility.—La Hollande, p. 96



Mrs. Trollope, Author of "The Domestic Manners of the Americans."



President's Levee, or All Creation going to the White House, Washington. Illustration by Cruikshank in "The Playfair Papers," published in 1841.



House of Representatives during a high debate on denouncing the Anti-Slavery Petitions. Illustration by Cruickshank in "The Playfair Papers," published in 1841.



Liberty Hall Dining Parlor. Illustration by Cruickshank in "The Playfair Papers," published in 1841.



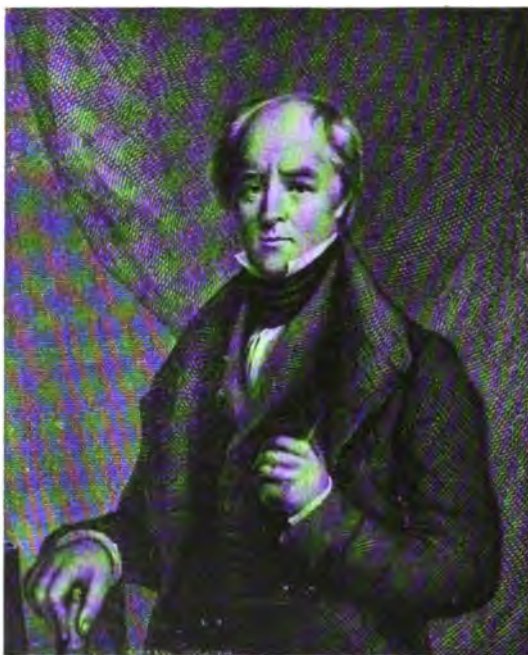
Liberty Hall Drawing Room. Illustration by Cruickshank in "The Playfair Papers," published in 1841.



Scene on Battery Point, New York. Illustration by Cruickshank in "The Playfair Papers," published in 1841.



A Scene at a Campmeeting. Illustration by Cruickshank in "The Playfair Papers," published in 1841.



Captain Basil Hall, Author of "Travels in North America."

"It is because France is the heart of the world; the affairs of France interest all; the cause which she espouses is not that of a selfish ambition, but that of civilization. When France speaks, she is listened to, because she speaks not her own feelings merely, but those of the human race. When she acts, her example is followed, because she does what all desire to do."*

Another Frenchman is less considerate of our sensibilities when he says that "French civilization is so above

*D'Almbert, in his "Flaneries," gives one special reason why the French should travel: Until they have looked in upon several nations lying in outer darkness, there is no way to measure the heights of French civilization: Just cross the frontier and it at once begins to dawn upon us how unrivalled we stand in all the tests of moral and spiritual refinement. Our morals are *probes, élégantes et faciles*, and our character, chivalrous, loyal, and without selfishness. Yet, we must travel, travel, especially to the United States, only to see how wisely the good God has given the finest country to the best of nations—France."

and apart from that of all other peoples, that his countrymen need not shrink from encouraging a people like those in the United States in their ambition to imitate the glories of France." This has a loftiness with which Victor Hugo has made the world familiar.

It will lessen the smart, as we turn for our punishment, to remember these various eruptions of self laudation.

That our special variety of braggadocio is extremely offensive to all sorts of foreigners, there is not the slightest doubt. De Nevers thinks it rather odious to assume that the Almighty is especially and exclusively committed on the side of American prestige. Among his illustrations, he quotes our historian Bancroft, "The American democracy follows its ascending march, uniform, majestic as the laws of being, sure of itself as the decrees of Eternity." Another finds it extremely distasteful that the Americans, above all peoples, cannot leave home for another country without "carrying their whole national belongings with them."

"From the moment they set foot on foreign soil, they begin to compare things with what they left behind them. This is intelligent and unavoidable, but the American is never at rest until he has made as many benighted 'foreigners' as possible understand and *admit* that their civilization and ways of life are inferior. Hotels, railways, checking baggage, the size of farms, the telephone, the methods of dispatching business,—one and all have to be 'rubbed into you,' to use their vernacular. Americans with any breeding, of course, do not do this, but it is the curse of the country that it has so vast an army constantly on the march that is never happy unless bragging about some superiority."*

This opinion represents the settled conviction of all our earlier critics and of some recent ones from whatever country they come. They find in this aggressive self-complac-

*A well known writer among our American women just returns from Europe with this appealing observation to her sisters during their stay abroad: "A little more repose, a little more appreciation of what is not American, a little more modesty about vaunting one's own in public, a little less criticism of other countries, a little more attention to the manner of expression and the timbre of voice—these are some of the things which would improve the American woman traveller, and yet leave her, as she should be, distinctly American."

ency the least tolerable of our qualities. About no other one trait is the unanimity more complete. There would be some escape, if the charge were brought by this or that nationality from which we widely differed, or if it came from the over-critical and ill-disposed alone. It is the very gravity of the accusation, that it comes from those most friendly to us and from those who have studied us with most open minds. The early French writers were passionately on our side and against the aspersions of the English critics of America. Yet the most cordial of these are annoyed by the incessant exercise of this unhappy talent. None of the French brought a more generous and insistent sympathy than De Tocqueville. No one gave surer proofs of that sympathy by the way in which he philosophizes upon and excuses crudities and annoyances necessarily incidental to travel and investigation seventy-five years ago in this country. Yet about our self-vaunting, he had this passage:

"For the last fifty years, no pains have been spared to convince the people of the United States that they are the only religious, enlightened, and free people. They perceive that, for the present, their own democratic institutions prosper, whilst those of other countries fail; hence they conceive a high opinion of their inferiority, and are not very remote from believing themselves to be a distinct species of mankind."*

De Tocqueville's friend, the Academician Ampère, has far less insight, but through his long journey is so gallantly polite and so obstinately the gentleman in every mishap, that we quite fall in love with him. His goodwill is exhaustless, but he suffers from hearing day in and day out,

*I. *Democracy in America*, Vol I, p. 506.

Another passage indicates a type which we hope was limited and exceptional: "I have often remarked in the United States, that it is not easy to make a man understand that his presence may be dispensed with; hints will not always suffice to shake him off. I contradict an American at every word he says, to show him that his conversation bores me: I preserve a dogged silence, and he thinks I am meditating deeply on the truths which he is uttering; at last, I rush from his company, and he supposes that some urgent business hurries me elsewhere. This man will never understand that he wearies me to death, unless I tell him so, and the only way to get rid of him is to make him my enemy for life.—Vol. II, p. 210.

that Europe is to be pitied for the lack of those perfections which blossom in the institutions and the character of Americans. "They are really very much hurt if you put these superiorities in question."

Abdy, who was here in 1833-4, has many comments on this characteristic. He is led to examine our school books, giving from Hart's "Geographical Exercises" this sample:

"Knowing that Asia," says the author, "is sunk in ignorance and gross superstition, the young reader will at once discover the cause of our moral superiority over the dull Asiatics, *as well as the great mass of more enlightened neighbors of the European part of the Eastern continent.* It need scarcely be repeated, that it is owing to the influence of the press shedding its rays of knowledge over the minds of a free people."*

Abdy has a theory that bragging is necessarily developed by the shifts of the demagogue in a democracy and "the adulation of the press." He quotes from the speech of President Van Buren before the New York Convention as follows:

"It was the boast and the pride and the security of the American nation, that she had in her bosom a body of men, who, for sobriety, integrity, industry, and patriotism, were unequaled by the cultivators of the earth in any part of the known world;—nay, more,—to *compare* them with men of similar pursuits in other countries, was to degrade them."

This has its match in a quotation from Mrs. Trollope:†

"Mr. Everett, in a recent Fourth of July oration, speaks thus: 'We are authorized to assert that the era of our independence dates the establishment of the only perfect organization of government.' Again, 'Our government is in its theory perfect, and in its operation it is perfect also. Thus we have solved the great problem in human affairs.'"

That we have not wholly recovered is seen in a few lines from the reported speech recently given by one of our most honored governors. It was spoken in an Eastern State.

"In the depth and breadth of character, in the volume of hope and ambition, in the universality of knowledge, in reverence for law

*Journal of a Residence and Tour in the United States.

†P. 163.

and order, in the beauty and sanctity of our homes, in sobriety, in the respect for the rights of others, in recognition of the duties of citizenship and in the ease and honor with which we tread the myriad paths leading from rank to rank in life, our people surpass all their fellow men."

When Mr. Bryce was at work upon his first edition, he quoted the following passage from an address before a well-known literary association by one of our eminent citizens, who was speaking of the influence which the American principles of liberty, as embodied in the Declaration of Independence, were exciting in the world:

"They have given political freedom to America and France, unity and nationality to Germany and Italy, emancipated the Russian serf, relieved Prussia and Hungary from feudal tenures, and *will in time free Great Britain and Ireland also.*"*

Thus the entire planet is saved by a few strokes of an American pen. Mr. Bryce evidently thinks this extravagant, for he adds:

"I have often asked Americans wherein they consider their freedom superior to that of the English, but have never found them able to indicate a single point in which the individual man is worse off in England as regards either his private civil rights or his political rights or his general liberty of doing and thinking as he pleases."

I submit again that some of the above citations hold their own pretty evenly with the caricatures of Charles Dickens. If placed side by side and honestly compared, the reader will be much in doubt as to which is the burlesque. Most of these soaring eulogies are themselves caricatures. No such dizzy heights of cultural attainment have been reached by us yet. I was told that the final passage quoted from the governor's speech received "enthusiastic applause from the entire audience."†

*American Commonwealth, Vol. II, p. 635.

†There was a large gathering chiefly of leading business men, many of them university graduates. They were being gravely and unctuously assured that we "surpass all our fellow men"—in what? In "sobriety," in "depth and breadth of character," "in the universality of knowledge," "in reverence for law and order," "in respect for the rights of others," "in recognition of the duties of citizenship," &c. This cosmic pre-eminence is not here measured by business and commercial tests, to which we have been much accustomed. It is measured by the very highest spiritual values that human beings attain in this world.

I have purposely omitted from this heart-searching the whole list of ill-tempered and grouchy opinions from critics who too obviously did not like us. One of these says he came to stay a year, but had the misfortune to spend his first two weeks at the Chicago Exposition. On his first morning at the Fair, he hears an official say, "I guess this show will make them Europeans feel silly." Why silly? asks the visitor. "You don't suppose they ever saw anything like this, do you?" When the unhappy stranger disagrees, he is assured by the official that it only proves that foreigners can't even tell a big thing when they see it.

It was the habit of this observer to ask a great many questions, but he says he invariably got brag instead of information, until, unable to stand it further, he took a ticket for home, resolved never to set foot in this country again. This is petulance, and need not much annoy us. Our wincing comes when wholly cordial and large minded men like Richard Cobden have to speak of the "vulgar expression of our self-sufficiency," or when a man of science full of gentle courtesies like Sir Charles Lyell turns aside from men and occasions in order to avoid "what one can stand now and then, but not everywhere and all the time." It is this type of man who often asks why we should have this ungracious habit. Why should it be so conspicuous? Is it from a permanent disease of "congenital eminence?" Is it because the people of the United States began by accepting a theory of equality which they soon saw could not possibly be applied to actual life? If the theory of equality was a source of pride, with its daily practise among men was seen to be impossible, would not this give rise to habits of self-assertion? Emerson thought the lack of virtues could be detected in any man who loudly talked about them. Is it because at heart the inhabitants of the States really doubt their greatness that they so clamorously insist upon it? Is it because they themselves see such a gap between their formulated democratic ideals and their actual practises, that they "put on an extra strut of self assertion before stran-

gers?" Another tries to find out "whether the Yankees brag among themselves as they do before strangers." He finds the evidence on this point very perplexing. On the one hand he is assured that the natives have an inexhaustible delight in abusing their own country and its institutions and will even entertain a foreigner with tales of political and other self abasement beyond any pitch of defamation that the most bitter outsider ever conceived.* Against this he is told that Americans are bored by this national habit more even than are strangers. Two "men of distinction" [probably both from the East] tell him that as you travel West, the note of braggadocio steadily rises until you reach the Pacific coast, where it would be deafening if your approach were not so gradual. As the big trees in the Yosemite are dwarfed because, on the route thither, you see so many larger and larger trees that the giant pines do not finally much surprise you. But this inquirer agrees that the "riot of self flattery does culminate in the Far West," its commonest form being that everything, from scenery to general culture, is the sublimest or the biggest in the universe. He notes down some forty objects or achievements that are indisputably "the finest in the entire world." G. W. Stevens writes of his own discipline in these words:

"I am now, Sir, about to show you my creamery. It is not yet finished, but when it is I anticipate that it will be the most complete and the best appointed,"—I shuddered, for I knew instinctively what was coming—"in the world." Shall I ever escape this tyranny of the biggest thing in the world?"†

*There is a most sagacious truth in a remark of Mr. Bryce to the effect that, worse still than any bragging is the habit of an occasional American of finding delight before strangers in decrying his own country.

†Professor Lamprecht recently writes, "Denver boasts of more buildings costing over \$200,000 to erect than any other city of its age and size in America." After seeing so many largest and most imposing sublimities, he adds, "Ich habe sogar—the purest water in the world—getrunken."—"Americana," p. 68.

Kipling, on his first journey, says he was told the Palmer House in Chicago was "the finest hotel in the finest city of God Almighty's earth."

Another amazed visitor, who admits the facts about our boastings, yet tries to defend us on the theory that a great deal of it is a form of American humor. He takes a passage from the novelist Marryat, who reports as follows:

"I was once talking with an American about Webster's dictionary and he observed, 'Well now, Sir, I understand it's the only one used in the Court of St. James by the king and princesses and that, by royal order.'"

There is in this instance some inherent suggestion of whimsical indulgence on the part of this defender of the Yankee dictionary, but the well meant thesis that our vaunting is largely jocular has, alas, very scant truth in it.* But the entire elimination of this element leaves a quite terrifying amount of strident vamping still to account for. When Emerson said the American eagle was a good deal of a peacock, and Lowell, as Ambassador, groans "that so many of my countrymen will allow the European to take nothing for granted about the greatness of America," they are both telling the truth.

Nor can it be allowed to pass that this glorifying is in any way exclusive of the West. There just comes to hand an official document of the Jamestown Exposition from which, among many, I take these sentences, "greatest military spectacle the world has ever seen," "grandest naval rendezvous in history," "greatest gathering of warships in the history of the world," "the largest military parade ground in the world," "the greatest military and naval parade ever witnessed," "the greatest display of gorgeous military uniform," and "the greatest military and naval celebration ever attempted in any age by any nation." This is an Eastern and not a Western product, and much more Atlantic rhetoric with the same resounding note could be reproduced. Foreigners both at the Chicago and the St. Louis Fairs, only on the edge of the West, found that "the world" standard was no longer

*Land of the Dollar, p. 167.

When some American deep-divers gave a public exhibition and one of them, before slipping into the water, called out, "We can dive deeper and stay under longer and come up *drier* than any divers in the world," the classification becomes easy.

adequate, so the "universe" had replaced it. On a very recent visit an English Bishop was delighted with one of our less conspicuous Eastern colleges. He smilingly told its President that it was very restful to find a school that was not in endowment, in rapid growth, in distinction of alumni, or in some other way "the biggest in the country." The Bishop reports that he noticed instantly the look of surprise and protest as his host replied, "But we do cover more *space* than any college in the United States." "From this time on," says the Bishop, "I avoided all occasions of bringing this extraordinary endowment into play."

In considering later [Chapter VII] the asserted super-sensitiveness of the American people, a little light may be thrown on the origin of this self magnifying by the reaction on national habits of that long border life incident to the slow extension of our population toward the Pacific coast. It was a life in which the individual was so thrown upon his own resources, as to call out every extreme of self assertion and independence. Successes were determined by his own conscious achievement rather than by social cooperation. Given several generations in which this border life advances so rapidly and with such signa' triumphs over the most redoubtable external difficulties and these extremes of self confidence are not unnatural. It is not alone the duration of this border life with its reactions, but, even more, its rapidity and its sense of mastery and overcoming that have left so powerful an impress upon the mind and character.*

Yet the origins of the blemish are not nearly so important as the main fact that we have as a nation sorely overdone this business of calling attention to our eminence. I have tried on several occasions to trap a Japanese into some chance exercise of this gift. It has never met with the least success. At a small gathering in New York, at which

*An obvious comment on this theory is that we are by no means alone among nations in having a long "border life." If other peoples [as in Australia] had this experience without the excess of brag, the theory is inadequate.

four Japanese of distinction were present, an American officer asked if the Japanese would take Port Arthur. With the same modesty, amounting almost to self-effacement, in which he had spoken of the entire war, this reply came, "We do not know. The Russians fight with so much spirit and die so well! but still we hope in a few months we shall get possession of it." Only in this tone could they be induced to speak of a single incident of their great struggle.

Later a Japanese official was congratulated upon their great naval victory by one of our own Admirals. "Yes," was the reply, "we think in Japan that our future tasks will be less difficult."*

Remembering the degree of exultation which followed Manila and Santiago, what vocabulary would have served us had the Russian fleet gone to pieces before our own ships? If Dewey's fleet was so easily made to overtop Nelson at Trafalgar, what heroic fellowship would have been found worthy of an American Togo! And yet whatever revelries of self admiration we may still yield to under unwonted excitement, nothing is clearer than the slow abatement of our boasting. More and more it has to be done with indirection and restraint. This toning down has come as we have grown more securely conscious of a national strength about which there is no question. The quoted bluster from political speeches in the first half of the last century would be far more likely to meet with derision before any average American audience at the present time. It was a part of the change which Dickens noted, even in the quarter of a century that separated his two visits to this country.

There is truth in Bryce's words, "Fifty or even forty years ago, the conceit of this people was a byword. It was not only self-conscious but obtrusive and aggressive . . . But American conceit has been steadily declining as the country has grown older, more aware of its strength,

*De Amicis says for the Dutch that in all their towns he never heard a trace of national braggadocio—*personne ne laisse percer l'ombre de vanité nationale.*—*La Hollande*, p. 95.

more respected by other countries." These are reassuring words. They are, moreover, true to the extent that we are more easily and quickly ashamed of bluster than we were in the days when we had plenty of shrewd suspicion about our failings, but did not like to have them specified and posted by an outsider. In such improvement as there has been, let us rejoice, but not forget that the talent still requires a great deal of careful watching.





The Story of American Painting^{*}

II. The Period of the Revolution

By Edwina Spencer

Author of "American Sculptors."

FOR a hundred years prior to that spring day, in 1775, when the embattled farmers fired their "shot heard round the world," art had been slowly establishing itself in America; we have already traced its beginnings in the form of colonial portraiture, watching the seeds of artistic achievement sown from north to south, and following the work of the early painters, which culminated in Copley's rich legacy to his country.

Succeeding these years of quiet development, came the stimulus of the struggle for liberty and the birth of the Republic. New conditions arose, producing, in the period from 1775 to 1800, work inspired by the events and heroes of the Revolution. The fame of the national cause, with the majestic personality of the Commander-in-chief and first President, drew a number of foreign artists to America, who added to the interesting portraiture of the epoch, and especially to the valuable portrayals of Washington. The miniature, so much more intimate in its appeal than the large portrait, came into immense vogue, engraving began to be more widely practised; and with political growth appeared our first essays in historical painting.

Slowly the convictions and ideals of the new nation

^{*}Miss Spencer's series will run throughout the reading year (September-May). The September articles were: "Foreword, and, I., Painting in the Colonies."

were reflected in its art; but the transition was, of course, gradual. In artistic, as in political and social progress, one stage merges imperceptibly into the next, and no arbitrary division can be made.

Neither is it possible to place the painters in one period or the other according to dates of birth or death. Copley, for instance, lived on into the nineteenth century, yet his real achievement belongs to the colonial era. C. W. Peale, on the other hand, though but four years Copley's junior, began to work later, and completely identified himself with the Revolution. While certain younger men, who began to paint before 1800 are associated with the work of the early nineteenth century.

Before the Revolution, and his momentous ride, that sturdy patriot Paul Revere had been long a goldsmith and engraver, learning the latter art from Copley's step-father, Peter Pelham. Yet his best work (chiefly portraits and political caricatures) resulted from the days of storm and stress, when his graver transferred to the copper plates the spirit of independence rampant within him. So, in 1766, he produced his engraving symbolical of the Repeal of the Stamp Act; four years later, one picturing the massacre in King street, on Boston's memorable fifth of March; and in 1774 that of the British troops landing in Boston.*

Less active as a patriot and more as an artist, was Ralph Earl (1751-1801), the best painter of his time in Connecticut. After the war, he spent twelve years in England, and was made a member of the Royal Academy; but returned to Connecticut, where he has left many dignified and quaintly attractive family groups. His portrait of Lady Williams shows him at his best. A fad of Earl's, in favor with some of his contemporaries, was to portray his sitters indoors with an open window behind them,

*When paper money was ordered by the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, Paul Revere engraved the plates, made the press, and printed the bills. He also designed many of the handsomest frames for the portraits of the time, and is said to have designed almost all of Copley's. Two fine examples of these are owned by descendants of the Winslows, at Niagara Falls, N. Y.

through which is seen the exterior view of the house; sometimes the building is surrounded by thirteen trees, patriotic emblems of the "infant states"!

While Earl was painting in New England, a Philadelphian, Henry Bembridge, was kept busy in the south, where he was greatly admired and his talent appreciated. He had had rather unusual opportunities for the time, having been the second American painter to study in Rome; after three years of work there, under Mengs and Battoni, he returned just before the Revolution to live in Philadelphia and later in Norfolk. Much of his excellent work remains in Virginia and the Carolinas, the field of his activity for more than a quarter of a century.

New York, at the opening of the period, affords a picturesque figure in John Ramage, the miniaturist, whose delightful "portraits in little" are among the century's best. He was an Irish gentleman who, having married a Boston girl and settled there, left that city with the British troops, and, in 1777, established himself in New York, where he painted for years after the close of the war. In William Street, now transformed by sky-scrapers into a stone canyon, through which surges a part of Wall Street's concentrated modernity, he had his quiet studio.

Ramage's fine miniatures depict most of the city's belles, beaux, and military heroes, including one of General Washington. Alas, that someone did not sketch the painter for us as his young friend Dunlap describes him; a handsome man with "an intelligent face and a lively eye," who dressed "beauishly" in "a scarlet coat, with mother-of-pearl buttons—a white silk waistcoat, embroidered with colored flowers—black satin breeches and paste knee-buckles—white silk stockings—large silver buckles in his shoes—a small cocked hat covering the upper portion of his well-powdered locks, leaving the curls at the ears displayed." A gold-headed cane and a gold snuff-box completed his costume. And have we not vividly before us a fashionable artist of the day?

The successes achieved in London by Benjamin West and John Singleton Copley had a marked effect on our artistic advance, during all of the quarter century. *Neither painter ever lost interest in, or active touch with, his native land; and their example, as well as their sound advice, did much to encourage the younger men who were beginning to aspire to European study.

West exerted the stronger influence. Unusual generosity of spirit, supplemented by his important artistic and social status, made him, throughout his fifty-five years in England, the host, helper, teacher, adviser, and sponsor of all the American art students who visited London, and he performed these kindly offices, with unabated courtesy, for two generations of younger painters.

From childhood West's good fortune was unvarying, and his career† was phenomenal until the waning of his popularity, a short time before his death at eighty-two. Arriving in London at twenty-five, he was almost immediately received into royal favor, and formed a friendship with George III, which lasted as long as they both lived. Miss Shewell, of Philadelphia, to whom he was betrothed before leaving home, crossed the ocean to marry him, in spite of the harshest opposition, and was his devoted helpmeet for more than half a century. The position of historical painter given him by George III. brought a yearly

*Copley has been considered by some to be Tory in his sympathies, but this is not borne out by his letters; his reserved nature seems to have held greater depths of quiet patriotism than has been recognized, and he never doubted the colonists' ultimate triumph. When the King formally acknowledged American independence, Copley was at work upon a portrait showing a ship in the background and he painted on its mast the first American flag displayed in England!

†When he left home at twenty-two, he was the first American art student to go to Italy, and the attention the handsome youth received everywhere, during his three years' stay, reads like a romance. The thought that a native of the far-off, and still mysterious regions of the New World had made such a pilgrimage to see for the first time the treasures of ancient civilization, so kindled the Italian imagination that West was the sensation of the day. He was made a member of the Academies of Florence, Bologna, and Parma.

salary of a thousand pounds, in addition to his other earnings, and for his pictures in the oratory at Windsor he received over twenty thousand pounds. He helped to found the English Royal Academy, and after Sir Joshua Reynolds' death became its second president, holding that office until he died in 1820, when he was buried, with the highest honors, in St. Paul's Cathedral. He is sometimes spoken of as "Sir Benjamin West," which is incorrect, for though the King offered him a title he refused it.*

Stuart's remark about West's being "busily employed upon one of his ten-acre pictures, in company with prophets and apostles," indicates the character of his work, which consisted chiefly of religious and historical subjects, upon huge canvases. These were painted with facility and industry, and often grandly conceived, but were never great; his religious pictures were least successful, for he lacked the imaginative and poetic spirit demanded by lofty themes. His battle scenes are much better; and in the historical field he rendered a notable service to art, by turning away from the conventional method of portraying heroes, of every period, in Greek and Roman garb. Soon after the capture of Quebec, he planned to paint the death of Wolfe, and when it was rumored that he was to clothe the soldiers in modern uniforms, instead of classic togas, efforts were made to dissuade him from such mad defiance of convention. He explained to the King his conviction that the painter of historical events should show the costume actually worn, and that much would be gained, not lost, by truth of detail. When the "Death of Wolfe" was finished, Reynolds, who

*His wife's brother was a violent man, intensely opposed to the marriage; and on receiving West's letter arranging for the voyage, promptly locked Miss Shewell in her room. There was nothing to do but elude him; and the adventurous matter was carried through by a remarkable trio of West's friends,—William White, afterward first Bishop of the Episcopal Church in America, who was then a lad of 17 who said "Ben should have his wife!"; Francis Hopkinson, the signer of the Declaration, and Benjamin Franklin. West's good old Quaker father chaperoned the bride on the tedious journey, and her cousin, the painter Pratt, accompanied him, the latter giving her away at the wedding, in the church of St. Martin's-in-the-Fields, London, in 1764. Mrs. West was a great-aunt of Leigh Hunt.

had earnestly opposed the idea, said "West has conquered." The bold innovation revolutionized historical painting.

While much of West's work has ceased to interest, the man himself was great, in his nobility and beauty of character. His self-respect and dominant good sense were unfailing; his kindliness and benevolence came from a soul that seems never to have known *an ungenerous thought.

Matthew Pratt, who was West's first American pupil in London, shows us in his able picture called "The American School" the master correcting a drawing for Pratt himself, and gives us portraits of three other students, whose identity is uncertain. A few years after this was painted, West took into his home a young man from Maryland, who was studying at the Royal Academy, and who returned to America in 1770 to enter upon a long life of artistic activity.

This was Charles Wilson Peale, born at "St. Paul's Parish," in Queen Anne County, Eastern Shore of Maryland, in 1741.† He began to paint miniatures and oil portraits a decade before the Revolution, after some instruction from John Hesselius at Annapolis; Copley gave him some lessons in Boston, and he was enabled finally to go to London, returning to work in Annapolis and Baltimore. In 1772 he was invited to Mount Vernon to paint Washington's portrait,—the first of a long series.

With the exception of a miniature sometimes attributed to Copley, this is the earliest portrayal of the Father of his Country. It is a three-quarter length, in the uniform of a Colonel of the 22nd Regiment of Virginia Militia; the red

*His encouragement and assistance of painters like Copley, who might have been feared as rivals; his generous gifts to artists in straits, even when they had been unfriendly; and the valuable time devoted, without remuneration, to those who came to him for instruction, make an unusual record. Every morning, from the early rising hour till ten o'clock when he began to paint, his atelier was open to all students, especially Americans, and he was there to give criticisms and advice. West's father first agitated the renunciation of slave-holding, which later became a tenet of the Quaker faith.

†Peale's birthplace is usually *incorrectly* given as Chestertown, Maryland.



St. Memin's "Physionotrace"
of Washington.



Nellie Custis, by Gilbert
Stuart.

facings, purple scarf, silver gorget, and "Wolfe hat" distinguish it from all the other Washington portraits. The face is perhaps the most satisfactory of all Peale's efforts.

From that time, Peale's dearest ambition was to associate his name with Washington's, and he made infinite opportunities to paint him,—doing so oftener than any other artist, and producing *fourteen portraits from life, with a vast number of replicas. These were made for various States, and for famous people here and abroad, including a miniature for Lafayette. Though his work is good, and improved as he grew older, we can but wish he had been as great an artist as Washington was a man, that

* In 1776, he entered the army, taking his paints with him, and dividing his time between brush and musket. He was captain of his company, which he led gallantly in every engagement,—while between battles he painted several portraits of his hero. One of the soldiers said of him, "He fit and painted, and painted and fit"! A portrait of Washington ordered by Congress, and now in the National Museum, was begun at Valley Forge; after the Battle of Monmouth he had another sitting at New Brunswick, and finally completed the work at Philadelphia.



Francis Scott Key, by Charles Wilson Peale. In the Gallery of National Portraiture, Pennsylvania Academy, Philadelphia.



Alexander Hamilton, by John Trumbull. In Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



Mrs. Joseph Anthony, Jr. (Wife of Judge Joseph Anthony, Jr., first cousin of the Artist), by Gilbert Stuart. In Metropolitan Art Museum, New York.



Mrs. Richard Yates, by Gilbert Stuart. In Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



Martha Washington (the "Athenæum Portrait"), by Gilbert Stuart.
In the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



George Washington (the "Athenæum Portrait"), by Gilbert Stuart.
In the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



The Death of Hector, by John Trumbull. In Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



The Declaration of Independence, by John Trumbull. In the Capitol at Washington.



General Knox, by Gilbert Stuart. In Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



Portrait of Lady Williams, by Ralph Earl. In Metropolitan Art Museum, New York.



Augustine Washington, by St. Memin.

Paul Revere, by St. Memin.

such marvellous chances for study might have resulted in the expression, by means of masterly technique, of a triumphant analysis of character.

After three years in the army, Peale left it in 1779, to represent Philadelphia in the Pennsylvania Legislature. A little later he began to form a museum in Philadelphia, and to lecture on natural history. He opened an art school, and attempted to hold exhibitions,—doing most important work for the nascent art interests of the country. The Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, founded in 1805 and now so rich in treasure, resulted largely from his efforts; and there one may see the old man's full-length portrait of himself painted in his museum. He died in Philadelphia at eighty-six years of age. Nearly twenty-five years intervened between his first and last delineation of Washington, and that period covers the production of almost the whole body of Washington portraiture.

Only a student of the subject can realize to what an extent our famous Virginian was portrayed by painters and sculptors. Aside from the statues, busts and medallions, which form a separate class, the paintings alone number



Washington at Dorchester Heights, by Gilbert Stuart. In Boston Museum of Fine Arts.



— George Washington, by Charles Wilson Peale. In Metropolitan Art Museum, New York.



George Washington (the "Lansdowne Portrait"), by Gilbert Stuart.
In the Pennsylvania Academy.



The American School, by Matthew Pratt. In the Metropolitan Art Museum, New York.

The London painting room of Benjamin West, showing him standing, at the left, with hat on, correcting a drawing held by Pratt, while the other three American students listen to his criticism.

several hundred; there are many miniatures and pastels, while the engravings are a study in themselves.

He was depicted almost from "the cradle to the grave,"—as young soldier, as citizen, hero, statesman and patriarch. Napoleon, living in a country and an age so actively artistic, is the only man who can vie with him in this respect. Besides being painted by every American artist of note, he sat to men from England, Scotland, France, Italy, Switzerland, Sweden and Denmark. Kings sent from Europe for his portrait; it was sought by grateful cities and states; by comrades who had fought and bled with him, and wished to bequeath the picture to their children's children; by women whose husbands or sons had died beside him; by all who loved him, and they were legion.

To gratify this sincere admiration from those who saw in him the loftiest soul of his time, Washington, lacking as he did even a tinge of the poseur, endured many irksome hours.* Artists followed him through campaigns, artists visited him at Mt. Vernon; they made drawings of him on parade, they penetrated to the council chamber, they sketched him surreptitiously at church or at the theatre,—as ever-present as the kodak-fiend!

Among them were various painters of foreign birth, some of whom followed their profession here for years, and ended their days in this country. The first to come over

*He vowed each portrait he sat for should be the last, yet his kindness and courtesy never failed. An amusing letter from him to Francis Hopkinson, who was very desirous of having his picture and had petitioned him to sit for Robert Edge Pine, is as follows:

"Dear Sir,—In for a penny, in for a pound, is an old adage. I am so hackneyed to the touch of the painter's pencil that I am now altogether at their beck, and sit like Patience on a monument whilst they are delineating the lines of my face. It is a proof among many others, of what habit and custom may effect. At first I was as impatient at the request, and as restless under the operation, as a colt is of the saddle. The next time I submitted, very reluctantly, but with less flouncing. Now no dray-horse moves more readily to the thill than I to the Painter's Chair. It may easily be conceived, therefore, that I yielded a ready obedience to your request and to the views of Mr. Pine."

was a Swiss, born at Geneva,—Pierre Eugene Du Simitiere. He arrived in Philadelphia in 1766; dying there eighteen years later, well known as an admirable citizen, despite the fact that when he was drafted in 1777 he refused to fight, and, though heavily fined, insisted he was "*only* a man of letters! His "American Museum," a very popular collection of miscellaneous curiosities, long ante-dated that of C. W. Peale. Ingenious and versatile, Du Simitiere was not notable as a painter, yet his military profile of Washington is better than many; it was one of thirteen portraits of distinguished Americans, which were afterward engraved and published in book form in London (1783).

Another Englishman, James Sharpless (or Sharples), came to New York about 1796. Though educated for the priesthood in France, he had preferred art to the church; and bringing with him his wife and three children, he contrived a large four-wheeled coach to hold them all, as well as his painting materials. Sharpless sometimes painted in oil; but ordinarily he employed pastels,—colored crayons which he made himself. Instead of using them in sticks, he kept them powdered, in small glass cups, and applied them with a camel's-hair brush, working very rapidly. The portraits are small and almost always profiles. He drew Mrs. Washington as well as her husband, and a really exquisite little picture of Nelly Custis in her bridal gown.

Among all the painters of foreign birth, however (many of whom it is impossible to mention in this brief review), we are most indebted to a Frenchman, Saint Memin.* His full name—Charles Balthazar Julien Fevret de St. Memin—recalls that "swell of Japan, whose name on a Tuesday began, and lasted through Sunday till twilight

*Upon his return to France, he was restored to his former military rank, the restoration being dated from the day of his exile! In 1817, he was made Director of the Museum at Dijon, where, congenially employed and honored by the people of his native town, he lived till his death in 1852.

on Monday"; he was born at Dijon in 1770, and fled from France during the Revolution, because of his Royalist sympathies. Coming to the United States at twenty-five, he remained for twenty years; learning in New York the art of engraving, and becoming a portraitist of repute. His winters were spent in travel, making portraits in various cities; his summers with his family, in Burlington, New Jersey, where he executed engravings from his original sketches.*

St. Memin's work is of decided value; his priceless series of eight hundred and eighteen engravings of eminent Americans in the Corcoran Gallery, preserving for us the largest number of contemporary portraits made by one artist during this famous period.—portraits drawn, too, with skill and accuracy. Some of the original crayon drawings from which he made his little engravings are still extant. They are life-sized bust portraits, in profile, the exact proportions being secured by means of a machine called the "physionotrace." From these, the outline was reduced in size by another device, the pantograph, to fit a circular space two inches in diameter in which size the engravings were made.

St. Memin's "physionotrace" sketch* was the last portrait of Washington taken from life. The strong, firm contour and reserved expression are convincing, and it is especially interesting to the student of his face, as presented by so many different artists. Yet as might, perhaps, be expected, most of the portraits of Washington seem empty of his magnificent spirit. Sharpless, indeed, said, "It is not in the grasp of any painter to hold the dignity and mightiness of the great subject." Certainly Sharpless himself did not convey it.

*It shows him in uniform (being what is called a "military profile"), and is half life-size, drawn in crayon on reddish brown paper. It was made in 1798, when Washington was in Philadelphia preparing to reorganize the army to meet the dreaded French invasion, and was again the Commander-in-Chief. St. Memin also made six tiny engravings of Washington to be set in mourning rings.

Neither was it achieved by John Trumbull, who made several portraits of Washington and had exceptional chances to study him. Trumbull's career will be more appropriately discussed in our next article.

Among all the painters of Washington, however, one of his fellow countrymen was destined to bequeath us the nearest approach to an ideal presentation of his character; for this we are indebted to the brush of Gilbert Stuart, that "master-painter of America," whose great portraits are still unsurpassed. Stuart returned to his own country, after a long stay abroad, with a keen desire to paint the President, and in 1794 went to Philadelphia for that purpose. He bore a letter of introduction from John Jay, but before presenting it he met Washington unexpectedly, at an evening reception* and was seized with what was almost a panic, so overwhelmed was he by the majesty of that remarkable presence!

He painted Washington three times, from life; the best known result being that head (unfinished below the chin) which is called the "Athenaeum portrait."† The full-length "Lansdowne" portrait is less satisfactory, while there is some question as to whether Stuart destroyed the third

*Though he had painted three Kings (and nobles galore), was always in command of a situation, and never at a loss for words, Stuart said afterward that he felt like a schoolboy, and when Washington spoke with him was too much embarrassed to reply! This effect of Washington's impressive personality never quite wore off, and the painter's sensitive nature was never thoroughly at ease when painting him.

Mrs. Stuart considered the President "the most superb looking person she had ever seen in her life," and she had seen many famous Europeans.

†So named because, after Stuart's death, it came into the possession of the Boston Athenæum,—where it remained until comparatively recently transferred to the custody of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. The Athenæum head has been reproduced probably to a larger extent than any other picture; the copies of it (including postage stamps and bank-notes), running up to hundreds of millions.

The Lansdowne portrait was painted for Mr. and Mrs. William Bingham of Philadelphia, who ordered it to present to the English Marquis of Lansdowne, in remembrance of his generous defense of America in the House of Lords.

effort, or whether the bust-picture called the "Gibbs-Channing" portrait may perhaps be that original. What he had done from life served him at any rate, as a basis for innumerable replicas (some of them hastily painted, but all of value), and for certain variations of the subject, like the "Washington at Dorchester Heights."

Washington's contemporaries declared "there was an expression " in his face that "no painter had succeeded in taking;" and Stuart was never satisfied with his own portrayals. Perhaps, had he been able to give us an earlier version of the hero, when the Revolution was opening, he might have evoked such a creation of fire and strength as his lesser brethren could not produce. As it is, he achieved, in the Athenæum head, a portrait of dignity and poise, of characteristic good-breeding, force and benignity,—which has come to be accepted as the most satisfactory representation of one who, like Simon de Montfort, was "the most peerless man of his time, in valor, personage and wisdom."

Stuart's father was a young Scotch Jacobite refugee, who joined, in colonial days, a group of his countrymen at Newport, Rhode Island; and having no way of earning a living in the New World, he was put in charge of a snuff-mill, just built, at the head of Petamsquott Pond, in the Narragansett country. The quaint building was mill and dwelling combined; there, in 1755, Gilbert was born.

Educated at Newport, where they settled later, Stuart was as precocious a lad as Copley. He began to paint at thirteen; at fifteen and sixteen he was producing portraits like those of Mr. and Mrs. Bannister, preserved in the Redwood Library. Then came an adventurous trip abroad, with his first teacher, a Scotch artist, whose sudden death resulted in many hardships for the boy before he could get home; yet he managed to return to Newport and began serious work, hiring, with a fellow-student, a "strong-muscled blacksmith" as a model. He became popular in the region as a portraitist, but at twenty set out for Eng-

land,—just at the beginning of hostilities, where after some little time, he entered the studio of Benjamin West.

Becoming his master's assistant, he remained nearly four years, and all his life spoke of him with real affection. Of the "tribe of Benjamin," as the youngsters who worked under West dubbed themselves, Stuart was destined to be the greatest; yet there is not a trace of West's influence in his painting. Nothing in the master's high-sounding subjects and forced effects appealed to the pupil; he consciously avoided what seemed to him an artificial style. The sincerity of Copley's work he admired greatly.

In 1782, having exhibited several times at the Royal Academy, he launched himself as a portraitist. His immediate success brought him a large income; he had an expensive establishment, a French cook, and the most brilliant men in London as his guests. Four years later, he married; and soon after went to Dublin, where he found a host of sitters and congenial friends. After five years, however, his reckless extravagance had plunged him into financial difficulties, and in 1792 he returned to America.

Stuart always said that his actuating motive in coming home was to accomplish the long-cherished hope of painting Washington. After two years in New York (during which time the Duke of Kent offered to send a war-ship for him if he would go to Nova Scotia to paint his Grace's portrait,—and Stuart declined,) the opportunity came, and he made his pilgrimage to Philadelphia. The sittings took place in a picturesque little stone building at Germantown, where both the President and his wife were painted,—Washington in the black velvet and lace ruffles which he wore on occasions of ceremony. He was accompanied, usually, by a number of officers or statesmen, and Mrs. Washington by various charming women of the day, who made the studio brilliant with old-time costumes and pleasant chat. What would one not give to have peeped in upon them!

Stuart lived until 1828, and painted many noted sitters, including five Presidents. His personality and his

art had a marked influence upon American painting in the nineteenth century, and remain to be fully discussed next month.* As a modern artist has said of him, he possessed that "power of characterization which lifts portraiture into the highest sphere of art," and makes him triumphantly "of the race of great painters for all time."

PAINTINGS.

The galleries, historical societies, and museums mentioned last month contain many works of Revolutionary, as well as Colonial, days.

Ralph Earl's work may be found chiefly in Connecticut; the Athenæum at Hartford, Conn., has a typical work in the large portrait of Mr. and Mrs. Ellsworth. The Metropolitan Museum has his portrait of Lady Williams.

Bembridge and *Ramage*, like Earl, and their other contemporaries, are represented in few public collections; their work is privately owned.

Benjamin West is well represented both here and in England. His portrait by Stuart is in the National Gallery, London; also one by Sir Thomas Lawrence; and another by Stuart in the National Portrait Gallery. His pictures illustrating "Revealed Religion" are in the oratory at Windsor, and many of his works are scattered in London. In America,—the Metropolitan Museum, New York, has a goodly number; the Boston Museum of Fine Arts several; and Philadelphia boasts many, including "Christ Healing the Sick" in the Pennsylvania Hospital. The New York Historical Society has several of his historical subjects, and his portrait of C. W. Peale.

C. W. Peale's paintings and miniatures are to be found in most public collections. The New York Historical Society has half a dozen portraits by him, and a most interesting "Family Group," showing himself, his wife and two children, with a number of other relatives, and even his faithful old dog, "Argus." The Pennsylvania Academy, Philadelphia, has others. One of his portraits of Washington is at Princeton College; a bust portrait of Washington in the State Library at Richmond, Va.; his first portrait of Washington (called the "Colonial" or the "Virginia Colonel" portrait) is at Arlington, in the family of General G. W. C. Lee.

*Reproduced here we have, in his portrait of General Knox, Stuart's fine and sympathetic rendering of a typical Revolutionary officer; and four distinct feminine types in the strong, gaunt face of Mrs. Yates, the rounded contours and graciousness of Martha Washington's countenance, Mrs. Anthony's younger and quite different style, and Nelly Custis' girlish beauty.

Mrs. Anthony was Henrietta Hillegas, daughter of Michael Hillegas, Treasurer of the United States, 1775-1789, whose portrait appears upon the latest issue of our ten dollar bills.

The work of *Du Simitiere*, *Pine*, *Sharpless*, *St. Memin*, *Wertmüller* (as well as other foreigners, such as *Field*, and *Robertson*, and Americans who painted Washington, like *Joseph Wright*), is, with few exceptions, privately owned, and therefore inaccessible to the public. *Sharpless* pastels of George and Martha Washington are in the Wadsworth Athenæum at Hartford; the National Museum in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, has forty of his pastels of famous Americans; the New York Historical Society has three.

St. Memin's most representative collection is that of eight hundred and eighteen engravings in the Corcoran Gallery, Washington, where are also his crayon portraits of William Wirt and his wife. In the New York Historical Society are eight profiles of Indian men and women.

John Trumbull's work will be mentioned next month.

Gilbert Stuart. Earliest portraits, those of Mr. and Mrs. John Bannister, in the Redwood Library, at Newport, R. I. His portraits of West, in London, have been mentioned. The especially fine one of Madame Jerome Bonaparte, (owned by the Hon. Charles Bonaparte), is in the Baltimore Historical Society. The Massachusetts Historical Society, the New York Historical Society, Harvard, Bowdoin, and other colleges, and various institutions in New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Washington have examples. The Boston Museum and the Metropolitan have several very fine ones; but the largest and best collection is that of the Pennsylvania Academy, Philadelphia, which is as representative of him as the Boston Museum's Copley collection is of that painter. Stuart has six fine portraits in the National Portrait Gallery, London.

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Isham's "History of American Painting" gives the fullest account of this period.

C. Edwards Lester, in a series of biographical sketches, "The Artists of America," (1846), treats some of the painters mentioned.

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Benjamin West. "Life, Studies and Works," by John Galt, London, 1820; not easily accessible. *Hawthorne's* opinion of him appears in his Complete Works, Riverside Edition, Vol. 12, p. 144-154. The only recent notice of West is "Benjamin West, his life and work." A monograph by Henry E. Jackson, Phila., 1900; well-illustrated.

Gilbert Stuart's "Life and Works" by George C. Mason, N. Y., 1894. Critical estimates of his work will be given next month.

SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS UPON REQUIRED READING WILL BE FOUND IN ROUND TABLE SECTION AT END OF THIS MAGAZINE.

End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for November.

Some Great American Scientists*

II. John James Audubon

By Samuel Christian Schmucker

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TODAY I saw the swiftest skater I ever beheld; backwards and forwards he went like the wind, even leaping over large air-holes, fifteen or more feet across, and continuing to skate without an instant's delay. * * * This evening I met him at a ball where I found his dancing exceeded his skating. A handsomer man I never saw; his eyes alone command attention; his name, Audubon, is strange to me."

So wrote a visitor to the neighborhood of the Perkiomen in the early years of the last century. Since then the name of Audubon has become better known in America than that of any other of her students of the animal world, that of the great Agassiz not excepted.

Born about 1780, with one of Napoleon's roving sea-dogs for a father, a Louisiana Spaniard for a mother, an adoring and sensitive French woman as a step-mother—"the only mother I ever knew"), with the great David as a teacher of drawing, and a French countryside in which to pass his childish years, followed by America for his manhood, there was little lacking in heredity or in environment for the making of a great naturalist.

His father destined him for the French navy, but when in a few years he found that his son knew little of his studies but had already made a good sized collection of natural objects and sketches of nearly two hundred French birds, he sent him off to America. He hoped that in the management of Mill Grove, a plantation which he had acquired, located on the Perkiomen, near Philadelphia, his son

*The first article of this series, "Asa Gray," by Prof. Charles Reid Barnes, appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September.

might gain some ambition for an acquaintance with practical affairs. Mill Grove is still a most beautiful spot, and here Audubon spent some of the happiest days of his life. Roaming the woods, drawing birds and other animals, Audubon at first held himself aloof from his neighbors. A chance meeting with Lucy Bakewell, the daughter of a neighbor, broke down his barrier and he quickly won her love. Her father, with practical foresight, demanded that the young lover first have an established business, and with this end in view, Audubon went to New York and entered a counting-house. It was not long, however, before country walks began to interfere with his progress and his neighbors entered legal complaint against the odors emanating from the bird skins in his room. It was soon evident that he was not adapted to a New York office, and his next venture was to go into business in Louisville with a friend. Shortly after this he was married to Lucy Bakewell and then began a life of movings and separations and returns. Never a moment's doubt of the love and devotion of this pair for each other can possibly be entertained. His granddaughter, Maria R. Audubon, in her charming and appreciative life of Audubon says of their later years: "It was sweet to see him with his wife; he was always her lover and invariably used the pronouns 'thee' and 'thou' in his speech to her. Often I have heard him say, 'Well, sweetheart, always busy; come, sit thee down a few minutes and rest.'"

But the roving blood in Audubon would not let him rest. His friends agreed that he was an impractical visionary, but his wife never failed to encourage him in his great plan, now clear in his mind, of making drawings of all the birds of America, though at that time the thought of publishing his drawings seems not to have entered his mind.

There is only one key to Audubon's life, and that lies in his absolute devotion to his purpose to make his great collection of drawings and to base them not simply on shot and stuffed specimens, but on the living bird. Collect and

stuff he did. Go to the dead bird for details of his drawings he did. But his pictures were founded absolutely on the life of the bird. No amount of time or trouble was too much to spend in the careful study of a single specimen. A Southern friend tells how for three successive days all day long he lay flat on his back, watching the building of a single nest.

Ludicrous stories are told of his utter lack of business capacity. While employed in the counting-house in New York, Audubon ventured his little available money in an indigo speculation and promptly lost it. Once after finding business at Hendersonville a failure, he decided to try St. Genevieve on the Mississippi. While moving, at one stage of the journey his available capital was carried in the pack-saddle of a horse. Several times on that trip Audubon lost sight of the horse in his deep absorption in the warblers which were abundant in the forest.

Such incidents as these have led many to smile at the "childlike helplessness" of Audubon, as similar stories of other great scientists are similarly interpreted. But these happenings are misunderstood. It was not lack of business ability, it was utter absorption in the great life work. His New York business fiasco was due to the fact that he was scouring the country after birds. At Louisville and Hendersonville on the Ohio, he trusted everything to his partner and took to the woods. Once turn him into the forest and he was at home. He journeyed, chiefly on foot, over practically all the States east of the Mississippi. Later in life he wandered through Labrador and subsequently up the Missouri to the Yellowstone. His first trip by rail came only on his second visit to England. Through the woods he carried his portfolio, fastened to his back. Often he strapped his bundle and his rifle on his head and waded or swam the streams that crossed his path. After long days of hard travel or assiduous painting he would sit up and write his journal most carefully. In a hand almost painfully minute he filled page after page. On the margin were the

accurate measurements of the birds mentioned, while covering the general entry were diagrammatic lines giving actual lengths of various parts. Little drawings interspersed through the text, made clear his meaning. The fineness of the hand in which the journal was written was doubtless due to the fact that he did not wish to carry a larger book than necessary; but he also says that in his Louisiana experience he was so poor that he scarcely could buy paper for his note books. Whenever funds absolutely failed him, he drew portraits of the people whom he met and received in payment the most trifling sums. Sometimes a supper, lodging, and breakfast were his only pay for the portrait of his host. Once, while living in Natchez he painted a copy of a print of the "Death of Montgomery." It greatly pleased his friends in the town and one of them suggested that a raffle be held, with the picture as a prize. Audubon valued the picture at three hundred dollars. So the friend sold twenty-nine tickets retaining one for Audubon himself, who as usual had taken to the woods. On his return Audubon was delighted not only to find that there awaited him three hundred dollars, but to hear his friend say—"Your number has drawn it (the picture) and the subscribers are all agreed that no one is more deserving of it than yourself."

Not only did he draw his birds with scrupulous exactness but every accessory was as carefully reproduced. The plants which often form the background are drawn as faithfully as are the birds themselves and they add much to the interest of the pictures. One day a hawk, sitting on an old limb of a tree attracted his attention. He watched it for some time and finally brought it down with his gun. When he started to draw it, he tried position after position and could not content himself. Finally, in despair, he seized an axe, climbed the tree, and cut off the limb on which the bird had been seated when first he saw him. With this as an accompaniment he soon succeeded in composing a picture to his own satisfaction.

John James Audubon



J. J. Audubon, from the Portrait by Henry Inman
(Reproduced through the courtesy of G. P. Putnam's Sons).

Sometimes the person who judges Audubon's drawings solely from the standpoint of the artist, is disappointed in the work. It must not be forgotten that the pictures are primarily records of facts of structure and of color. Baron Cuvier, in his report to the French Academy of Sciences, says: "Naturalists prefer the real color of objects to those accidental tints which are the result of the varied reflections of light necessary to complete picturesque representations, but foreign and even injurious to scientific truth." The necessity for making structure and form clear even in the shadows, sometimes results in flattening the perspective. But no scientist would be willing to have the artistic touch added at the expense of the accuracy of record.

Great American Scientists



Audubon's Home, at Mile Bank on the Perkiomen.
Photo by C. E. Ehinger.

Every now and then a longing for his family overcame him and he journeyed back to them, often on foot, or sent for them to join him. Then for a while he would teach drawing or dancing. But it was useless. Short trips would be followed by longer and he was once more away on his quest after birds for his great collection of pictures.

Gradually there formed itself in the mind of the draughtsman the idea that these drawings should not simply form a great collection—that they must be published. The plan was cherished in his heart and in that of his devoted wife. Their home was at this time on the Bayou Sara, near New Orleans. Mrs. Audubon was earning nearly three thousand dollars a year by teaching and she agreed to devote her earnings to the cause. Audubon himself took a large painting class and one in fencing, and gave himself up to teaching them until he added two thousand dollars to

the store of savings. With this money in hand, and his collection of drawings he set sail for Liverpool. From this time on those who doubt Audubon's capacity for business have much to explain. He had comparatively few letters of introduction. It was the magnificence of his drawings and the wonderful charm of his lovable personality that rapidly won him recognition. When Audubon reached England his flowing hair, which he had always worn hanging over his shoulders, attracted much attention and his friends remonstrated with him on the subject. A page of his diary at this time has a deep border of black about it and inside the border is written: "This day my hairs were sacrificed, and the will of God usurped by the wishes of men."

England was somewhat slow in recognizing his mastery of his subject but in Edinburgh he soon came into his own. From this time on there was no lack of appreciation. He exhibited his pictures, charging an admission fee, painted and sold copies of the bird plates, painted portraits, did anything that would bring him money for his great purpose. He made arrangements for the publication of his ambitious work in Edinburgh, and here the first number of five plates was made. But the later numbers were published in London where both the engraving and the coloring were better done. Now came the great labor of getting subscribers. He visited everybody who would look at his work; but it was a most costly venture. There were to be more than eighty numbers, each containing five plates. The cost of each number was two guineas or a little more than ten dollars. The men who could subscribe for a book on birds that was to cost nearly nine hundred dollars were naturally not abundant. But it was truly a princely work. Each plate was printed on "double elephant" paper (which is twenty-seven by forty inches in size). The pictures were all engraved on copper and then printed from the copper plate, after which they were carefully colored by hand in imitation of Audubon's original pictures. The great size was by some thought an objection but Audubon chose it because he wanted to

represent all his birds in life size. He prided himself not a little on the fact that the great French naturalist, Baron Cuvier, approved of the size.

Lord Stanley was his first great patron and it was through him that the King of England himself was induced to subscribe—and pay for his subscription. Audubon quaintly says he subscribed “not as kings generally do, but as a gentleman.”

One day he visited Baron Rothschild with his book and succeeded in interesting him and in getting his name on his list. The Baron failed to ask the price,—which fact Audubon attributed to the indifference of wealth. When several copies had been delivered and not been paid for, a statement of the account was sent, amounting to about one hundred pounds. The Baron was indignant at the idea of paying so much for pictures of birds and offered five. On Audubon's refusal to accept this munificent sum, the Baron returned the work.

After England had been canvassed, Audubon crossed over to France. Here Baron Cuvier was deputed by the Royal Academy of Science to examine and report on the work. His report was very favorable and the society purchased the work. The Librarian of the King suggested that kings do not pay for books; to which Audubon retorted that he was sorry to miss a sale. Later the King ordered six copies.

Audubon returned to America but soon made a second journey to England, his wife at this time accompanying him. His affairs were prospering now. Some subscribers had dropped out, but others were soon found to more than take their place, and Audubon came back to America to buy a new home just above New York, embracing the ground now known as Audubon Park. Here he went busily to work on his Ornithological Biographies. This was a series of volumes giving accounts of the life history of the birds whose pictures were found in his great book. No other writer on birds has ever made so many records of his own observa-

tions as are found in these fascinating accounts. Interspersed among his life histories of the birds are chapters which he calls Episodes. These give in most vivacious form, descriptions of regions he has visited, and of the manners and customs of the people he has seen. No one can read these exquisite passages without being impressed with the absolutely transparent purity of mind of this traveler. Under circumstances that often offered what most travelers would have considered legitimate opportunity, he never drops a suggestive word. His sensibility is apparent on almost every page, sometimes with peculiar inconsistency. His indignation at the "eggers" who collected the eggs of marine birds on the islands off the coast of Labrador is most extreme. "At every step each ruffian picks up an egg so beautiful that any man with a feeling heart would pause to consider the motive which could induce him to carry it off." But later, in Florida he tells quite naively how he and his companions breakfasted on ibis eggs, taken fresh from the nest and shot shore birds until the pile looked like a hay-cock.

He is struck by the behavior of the Labrador squatter who "prays toward the sea in spring and summer because from it came his sustenance; and towards the mainland in winter whence the caribou came down." But it was his own near interests that moved him also. "Many a time," says he, "at the sound of the wood thrush's melodies have I fallen on my knees and there prayed earnestly to God."

Audubon's later life was entirely free from want, and all he possessed was the result of his own efforts. His father had died and left him an estate in France and some money in charge of a merchant in America. The merchant failed before Audubon could get his money, and the estate in France he freely gave to his sister. It was during these later years that he made his journeys to Labrador and to the Yellowstone. His sons, John and Victor, effacingly worked for him and much of the later work that is credited to Audubon was really done by them.

With increasing years he spent more and more time at home. Gradually the brain failed. The keen eye lost its wonderful luster. Surrounded by those he so dearly loved, and who adored him, without illness, he passed gently away, while the sun fell slantingly across the Hudson upon the snow, of a January afternoon in 1851.

Scientist, in the technical sense, Audubon was not. His plates were many of them named in England by the ornithologist, Charles Lucien Bonaparte. In his "Ornithological Biographies" the technical descriptions were written by McGillivray. He began a series of plates of Quadrupeds similar to that of Birds. Dr. Bachman did all the technical part of this book and little of it was finished previous to Audubon's death, though his sons continued it. He was even mistaken, so a scientific friend tells me, as to some of his identifications. But the fact remains he was America's greatest student of the birds. His spirit pervades all American bird study today; and the great body of people throughout this country who are determined that the slaughter of birds shall cease before these feathered blessings of our land are extinct, have banded themselves together under his name.

The bird lover who is tempted to go farther will find a very readable one volume life of Audubon, based on a manuscript edited by his widow, and published by the Putnams. Still better is the later work in two volumes by his grand-daughter Maria R. Audubon, with much re-found material and beautiful illustrations, published by the Scribners. Most large public libraries contain Audubon's written accounts of the birds in one of the various forms in which they have been printed. I am informed by Mr. Ruthven Dean that portfolios of the great Bird Plates themselves can be seen amongst others in the following easily accessible places:

New York City—The Astor Library.

Philadelphia—The Academy of Natural Sciences.

Washington—The Congressional Library.

Chicago—The Field Columbian Museum.

In no case would such valuable books be entrusted to a stranger, but a group of people, properly interested in the subject would always be welcomed and the librarian would undoubtedly appoint some one of his assistants who would exhibit the sumptuous and valuable work.

It is part of the irreparable loss from the San Francisco disaster that two copies of Audubon's Birds in the original folio edition were then destroyed.

Charles Haag

An Immigrant Sculptor of His Kind*

By Crystal Eastman.

Greenwich House, New York.

TUCKED away in the far side of a wooded hill in New Jersey is a one-roomed cabin studio, where a sculptor is working. Part of the time he makes models for bronze clocks,—neat, fancy, decorated affairs, the like of which we can buy any day in the shops. This work he does to order because he and his wife must eat and have some shelter to live and work in. Part of the time he gives form in clay and plaster to whatever seems to him great or vital in the life of the world today. Labor,—the human struggle,—the awakening spirit of brotherhood among men,—these are his themes. And the figures and groups in which he has expressed them tell their story with a simplicity and powerful directness that should bring home truth to the most indifferent or prejudiced mind. And this, the man's real work, he does not because he hopes to sell it, but because his imaginative artist-soul is fired with a message, which must be told.

This man of whose work I have spoken is Charles Oscar Haag, a Swede of humble birth who has been in this country five years. He was born in Nörrköping, Sweden, in 1868. Before he was twelve years old he went to work in a factory, where he learned the trade which was to be his chief means of livelihood during the years that followed. But always the desire to be a sculptor was strong in him, hard daily labor could not kill it. As a child he began to study clay-modelling in the evening schools, and before he was twenty had learned all that these schools could teach him of his art. Then he began to look out for an opportunity to study further and for

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a chance to live in such a way that he could give more time to the work he loved. Money was lacking, however, and he had no powerful friends. His restless spirit, conscious of latent powers and a great longing unfulfilled, led him to wander from country to country in Europe, always hoping for a better fortune. He lived for a time in Germany, Switzerland, France, and Italy, still compelled to spend most of the time at his trade.

These years which must have seemed so fruitless to the artist in him were nevertheless important in preparing Haag for his best work. For wherever he went, his lot was cast with working people. He labored with them, suffered with them, hoped with them; he lived their life. This has given him a great sympathy for the working man and woman everywhere and an understanding of their lives. Not only does he feel the dignity and pathos of monotonous, unrewarding toil, which other artists have glorified, but he knows also, and understands, the new spirit which is stirring among the working people in all lands today. He has felt the hope that is in a united struggle. In Germany Haag was identified with the social democracy, and everywhere trade-unionism claimed him. He knows the meaning of strikes and boycotts from his own experience. These years of struggle may have brought him the despairing impotence of poverty and the bitterness of defeat, but they brought him too the hope that is in fellowship. The feeling of brotherhood with workingmen the world over became forever a part of him, and when he came into his own, his work had to be an expression of that spirit.

Finally Haag went to Paris a second time and here fortune smiled at last. He found a demand for his work which allowed him to give up his trade for good and devote himself to art. What led him to leave Paris, where he was beginning to be known, and come to America to start over again, no one seems to know,—not even Haag himself. But we should be glad that he came for he is a man whose work we need to know.

There seem to be two great spiritual forces at work in America today, both trying to solve the same problem, the economic problem which confronts us every day in various phases,—vast inequality of opportunity,—extreme wealth and extreme poverty with equally deplorable consequences,—a nation boasting of its prosperity while each year sees more children working in its mills and factories. One of these forces seems to be reaching down from a place of comparative safety to investigate, help and prevent. Modern philanthropy, social settlements, associations for social and civic betterment are manifestations of it. The other force seems to be blindly struggling up from beneath, bound to break through and find the light. It finds expression in trade-unionism and the socialist party,—the peculiar spiritual strength of both lying in their recognition of the fact that the workingmen's best interest makes them brothers, that together they must fight for a better chance for all. We are beginning to learn that we cannot work effectually at the problem until these two forces understand each other and begin to work together. The leaders of the workingmen must come to welcome the eager intelligent efforts of their more fortunate fellows,—they must see that in a larger sense the brotherhood spirit actuates these men too. On the other hand, the social workers of all kinds must recognize that there is a movement of the working people under way which is probably bigger than any of their schemes, and to which they must in some way adapt themselves with wisdom and an open mind, for it needs their help.

It is in aid of this mutual understanding, I think, that the peculiar significance of Charles Haag's best work lies,—especially in declaring the forceful idealism of the working class movement. For instance, one of his best groups, *The Immigrants*,—shows us six or seven men and women huddled together under their burdens,—each face and figure straining forward with a look of fixed despair. The artist has crowded them so closely together, perhaps, to symbol-

ize two things,—that there is no room for them in the world and that they are inevitably drawn together by their common misery. It is a picture which goes to the heart; it also makes one think. Then there are two wonderful groups, one called *The Strike*,—and the other a symbol of Trade Unionism. In the former four rough miners stand together, with fists clenched and jaws set,—a patient but unyielding determination in their faces. It is a strong picture of united defiance. The other, *Trade Unionism*, seems to me the greatest piece that Haag has done. Here there are three men. They stand with their right hands clasped one above the other on the handle of a sledge, and in their strong figures and purposeful faces there is expressed not so much defiance as steadfastness. They seem to be united by their common hope. We are made to see in this group the nobility that comes to everyday men when they have for a time lost sight of individual gain, and are standing together for some common good. I think that a little contemplation of this group would do more to enlighten the scoffer as to the spiritual meaning of the trade union movement than many labored arguments or impassioned appeals.

These are the finest pieces, but there is much that is interesting besides. Some of his work is more fancifully symbolic,—as for instance, in the *Shadows*,—a piece which represents with startling truth the tragic struggle for money,—and one very beautiful study which he calls *Accord*,—a Swedish peasant and his wife pulling together a wooden plow. Then there are a good many single figures,—chief among them, *The Dude*, a caricature of luxurious, degenerate idleness,—and *Old Days*, which tells the saddest tale of all,—the coming of old age to the very poor.

It is not altogether upon Haag's completed work that one bases a conviction of his creative ability. There is in his studio a long shelf full of tiny, rough studies, in each of which he seems to have caught a passing fancy and held it there in plaster. These give but the crudest suggestion of what he means to fashion; they are his "notes" or



Charles Haag, Sculptor.



The Immigrants (Side View of Group), by Charles Haag.
Photograph Reproduced through Courtesy of the Artist.



The Immigrants (Front View of Group), by Charles Haag.
Photograph Reproduced through Courtesy of the Artist.



Trade Unionism, by Charles Haag.
Photograph Reproduced through Courtesy of the Artist.
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The Strike, by Charles Haag.
Photograph Reproduced through Courtesy of the Artist.



The Watchman, by Charles Haag.
Photograph Reproduced through Courtesy of the Artist.



Accord (Swedish Peasant and Wife Plowing Together),
by Charles Haag.

Photograph Reproduced through the Courtesy of the Artist.



The Shadows, by Charles Haag.
Photograph Reproduced through the Courtesy of the Artist.

"sketches." But we must consider them in estimating his powers. They show a very unusual imagination. Considering this, together with the strength and truth and beauty of the pieces he has found time to complete, one might prophesy that Charles Haag will one day be a great sculptor.

So far as I know, this man's work is unique. He has a scorn for imitators which is only equalled by his contempt for "clever figures which say nothing." In all great art, he says, there must be an idea to express and this must come from the soul of the artist. To quote from Haag's own conversation in an indescribable but very effective broken English,—*"If it don't come from the man himself, it isn't hones' . . . skill is not art. If it is only cleverness it is a great bluff but it is not art. . . . 'I tell you,—go look at the nature. It is simple, big and silent. It does not make a bluff to you, and yet you feel it,—what it means.'"* Add to this Haag's firm belief that true art should be an expression of its own time, and you have the underlying principle of his work. One might call it the realism of an idealist. His work is an exposition of it. There is little delicacy of finish or fine detail. He shows us life as it really is; sometimes his pieces are so simple as to seem crude at first, but they never fail to declare with clearness and force the word which he had to speak. To use his own words in speaking of nature, his figures stand before you—"simple, big and silent"—and you *feel* what they mean.

Haag's attitude toward his life and work is as simple and straightforward as his theory of art. He lives in a most retired way and makes no pretensions. Most of his work he keeps out of sight so that one must ask to see it. He has a gentle humorous contempt for artists who follow false gods and for the people who encourage them. As for him, he will do just enough of the popular work, which he despises, to keep a roof over his head. The rest of his time, he will devote to his art. Since he has no money to

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have his pieces cast in bronze, he cannot even exhibit them. Therefore, he models them one after another, as the ideas come to him, casts them in plaster, and then sets them away behind a wide green curtain, to wait there unobserved, except by a few poor but admiring friends.

And so Haag's clock models go forth to meet the admiration of a misguided public, while his unique and wonderful studies of life,—so sympathetic and human, so full of meaning and prophecy,—these dream children of his,—retire one by one behind the green curtain in his studio. We do not need the clocks. God knows there must be clocks enough and to spare in this hustling America of ours, where time is more precious than life itself, where five minutes is more to be considered than a kind word or a helping hand. No, it cannot be that we need more clocks. On the other hand, how great and crying is our need of just such art as this man could give us,—simple, strong and true; art which could make us feel the dignity of labor, the pity of things as they are, and the hope and promise of the future!

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

THE domestic sphere needs a religious program of life. A group of six persons united as parents and children is more valuable as a field of religious influence than twice that number of independent personalities. We need today the Christian household with its atmosphere, its example, its effective instruction according to the daily, simple, but invariable program.

Are we bringing up a generation of children without a positive religious faith, without family worship, without ear-

*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

nest drill in the most practical and important parts of Holy Scripture, without reverence, without a Sabbath conscience, multitudes of them not going to the public service of the church? I greatly fear for the results. We need, especially now, with the inflow of ignorant and degraded immigrants, we need the American home at its best with the restoration of enough Puritanic vigor to give children a conception of the reality of righteousness, and of the perils of selfishness and indulgence. We need a steady home illustration of the holiness and justice as well as of the mercy and gentleness of God. We need perhaps in our homes an increase of literary, intellectual and esthetic emphasis in our age; but not so much as we need wholesome restraint, firm administration, wise discipline, intelligent self control and an experience at home in the benefits of obedience and the untold evils of deliberately transgressing God's holy laws of life.

Epecially is it important that literary, cultivated, refined, professional and the really "best society" people who make any profession of Christianity at all and who protest against being accounted polished pagans, should have and should conform to a religious program of life. The more talents they have the more they owe to the church and to society, the more imperative the demand for courage, open confession and positive influence. Of all the public advertising devices of our time, perhaps the most pitiful is the milliner's dummy with its expressionless features and corpse like pose. An utterly deaf, dumb, and dead thing wearing the fashionable garb of the living society of the day, having that modern feature and nothing else. Professing Christians may be such dummies. Church membership, the ceremonies of church worship, the cold and lifeless assent to church creeds but no real program of life, no conviction, no earnestness, no personal self-sacrifice, no living example—this lack is the saddest feature of our age. May I plead in behalf of a life that is life—a program of life that takes into account eternal life?

I. This program of life should embrace an intelligent,

personal, positive, comprehensive covenant with God and surrender to him.

II. This covenant should be frequently repeated, accompanied by self-recollection and concentrated attention—the full force of the will put into it.

III. It must be sustained by the reading of stimulating religious literature, strong, clear, forcible, presenting broad views, noble ideals, developing a richer inner life, and kindling desire for service.

IV. There must be among earnest souls, more conversation with a serious purpose, a canvassing of current, ethical, political, religious and social problems, thus promoting a deeper sense of social responsibility in all who profess to be Christians. Religious talk may be little else than cant. But it may be genuine, hearty, spontaneous and most stimulating. Good sense and good will are a sure guarantee against timid silence and fruitless speech. This habit of religious conversation has nothing to do with morbid, introspective analysis of one's feelings at the present time, nor does it approve the threadbare recitals of spasmodic raptures of ten or fifty years ago. It is sane conversation concerning obligation, resolve, cooperative effort, confidence, and enthusiasm at present in the work to be attempted by the Church that stimulates to hopefulness, activity, and success.

V. The serious and daily study of the Holy Scriptures to which modern consecrated scholarship invites us is another pathway to an earnest religious life. It does seem to lead us through historical, linguistic, archæological and merely literary hallways, but just yonder you can see the light through the keyhole, or doors ajar, yonder the fire of the Shekinah glows, the letter of the law becomes life to the soul that sincerely searches the scriptures.

The modern literary and critical study of the Bible is one of God's ways for alluring thoughtless souls, and for vitalizing scholarly and eager students until they become in

the Christian sense disciples who walk in the way of the Lord.

VI. In the program of the religious life there is an act we call prayer. Where one fancies that he "cannot pray" he soon finds that he can meditate. He who meditates seriously develops desire. Meditation and desire lead to more meditation and deeper desire; and very soon the soul considers, covets and craves, and then resolves to ask. And then the key has turned in the lock and an angel whispers, "Behold, he prayeth." That secret learned, the life religious is realized.

VII. Let us remember that the true program of life does not condemn the geniality and even the jollity of social life, the flash of wit, the play of humor. True life is never somber. Its motto is "Rejoice always." It is a false standard of piety that accounts melancholy and solemnity of manner a necessity. The very opposite is true. Good cheer, a love of fun, the sparkle of bright repartee, the humorous story, are all in place where they can brighten the social circle; and need never and can never violate the laws of purity and reverence.

VIII. Fight self by forgetting self. Never mind yourself. Never worry about yourself. Never talk about yourself. Mortify self. That means kill self, literally "do it to death." And don't waste money or tears on a funeral. Self-dead! Who cares! Don't mark the spot where it is buried. It is the only thing I know of that is too easily raised from the dead! Bury it deep! Bury it in a fathomless ocean—the ocean of God's grace! Don't raise it from the dead by even telling about it.

IX. This work of grace embraced in the program of life I commend is strictly scientific. There is a natural law in the spiritual world. Henry Drummond has properly expounded it. Robertson of Brighton, Horace Bushnell, James Martineau have emphasized it. It is at the basis of what some of you call the "vagaries" of Emanuel Swedenborg, but all these writers discriminately studied, leave with you

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this thought, the world of matter and the world of mind are one and God is in both, and his processes in both are strikingly alike. And one cannot follow the teachings of Jesus without feeling the marvelous harmony between the world of matter and the world of spirit. There is a solar system, under law, charged with power, radiant with beauty. The source and center is the sun. And there is a spiritual solar system under the sway of the Sun of righteousness, controlling, illuminating, vivifying and glorifying every planet that allows itself to swing in its appointed orbit and yield itself to the sway of this central Sun. And while this solar figure is only a figure, a symbol, the reality itself is still more wonderful. Jesus, the second person in the Eternal Trinity, that mystic unity that is, according to the Holy Scripture, an eternal community, Father, Son and Holy Spirit,—that Jesus as the Word is the revelation, the voice of God, the face of God, the hand of God, holding, leading, sustaining, comforting, all who believe in Him.

Frederick W. Robertson thus states the fact of the soul's personal rest and security in Christ: "The Christian religion consists in the personal love and adoration of Jesus Christ; not in correct morality and correct doctrine, but in homage to the King." (Quoted by Hermann in his "Communion of Christians with God.")

X. The true program of life makes God our Father as historically revealed in Jesus Christ and as subjectively made known to each one of us by the Holy Spirit. This is a religion of spiritual power, of actual, practical righteousness, of generous judgment, of optimistic outlook, of a genuine spiritual "sweetness and light," of strict fidelity to duty, duty of every sort and pertaining to every relation, duty born of delight and not of morbid awe or weak timidity; a religion of calmness, self-control, peace profound, and stability good for every one of 365 days a year.

XI. Now this exalted, spiritual life, possible to all, requires daily personal attention, care, self-training, enthusiasm and service. Therefore the church is a school, a college,

a university, and every believer is a disciple, a student with his program of life always before him. Alas, that our Christian students do not aim higher, grow faster, become stronger, enriched with wisdom earthly and heavenly. Alas that so many business men and society women have a program for everything but the personal spiritual life! Let us all learn a lesson from our Master, the man of Nazareth. One day, as his custom was, he stood up in the synagogue to read. The book of the prophet Isaiah was delivered unto him. He opened the book and found the place where it was written: "The spirit of the Lord is upon me, because he anointed me to teach good tidings to the poor. He hath sent me to proclaim release to the captives, and recovering of sight to the blind, to set at liberty them that are bruised, to proclaim the acceptable year of the Lord." And then he added: "Today hath this scripture been fulfilled in your ears." No wonder that "the eyes of all in the synagogue were fastened on him."

Here is the religious program of life for the individual and for the family and for the race and for all the ages.

William Dean Howells

WILLIAM DEAN HOWELLS, the "Dean of American Letters" as he has often been called, recently celebrated his seventieth anniversary. Almost of an age with Mark Twain, his intimate friend, he shares with the great humorist the most commanding position in our literary life and is recognized at home and abroad as the greatest living American novelist.

Mr. Howells was born in Ohio and has spent his life in literary work as editor, novelist, essayist, poet, and writer of travels. From 1872-81 he was editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*, a position filled by several of our greatest authors in the fifty years of that magazine's existence. As a young

man and rising author he was associated with Lowell, Emerson, Holmes, Longfellow, and Bryant, and is thus the connecting link between the first great school of American writers and the writers of today. Almost his first books, "Venetian Sketches," and "Italian Journeys," the literary product of his sojourn in Venice as United States Consul, 1861-5, won him the friendship of the Cambridge group, the members of which were deeply interested in the study of Dante and of Italian life and literature. Mr. Howells has in recent books returned to the charming travel sketches of his earlier days, notably in "London Films," and "Some Delightful English Towns," delicately etched pictures of English life.

It is as a novelist however that Mr. Howells has made his greatest name and will hold the most enduring place. No one has interpreted the average American, man or woman, as has Mr. Howells in a long series of sane, accurate, realistic novels. The most famous of these, "The Rise of Silas Lapham," perhaps deserves the title of "the greatest American novel" as well as any book yet written, though "A Hazard of New Fortunes" and others of his work make a strong claim for this distinction.

Always interested in social questions, an idealist, Mr. Howells has, in his last book, "Through the Eye of the Needle," returned to the discussion of our economic injustices and our faults as a people, with delicate irony pointing out the error of our ways. In an earlier book, "A Traveller from Altruria," Mr. Howells made his first essay into this field, and his resumption of the role of critic is timely and to be welcomed. He has never allowed himself to get into a rut or harden into conservatism, and the movement for social readjustment which has grown so pronounced in recent years finds in him a wise and judicious advocate, one who welcomes the prospective changes which will make American social conditions more just, offering to the many the greater opportunities for comfort, leisure, and culture which are today monopolized by the few.

William Dean Howells



WILLIAM DEAN HOWELLS.

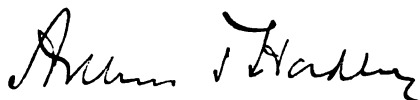
**Greeting to C. L. S. C. Readers from President
Hadley of Yale University.**

My dear Mr. Vincent:

It gives me great pleasure to accept your invitation to send a word of greeting to the Chautauqua readers.

A university has been defined as a place where many are trained to the love of science and letters and a few to their successful pursuit. Whatever you can do to increase the number of those who are educated to love these things makes them in a true sense part of a great national university, and broadens the foundation on which American culture rests.

Faithfully yours,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Arthur S. Hadley". The script is fluid and cursive, with the first name "Arthur" and the last name "Hadley" being the most prominent parts of the signature.



What is the American ?

By Hector Saint-John de Crevecoeur.*

[Mr. John Graham Brooks' article in this magazine "Who is the American?" calls to mind a little-read classic of our literature, "Letters of an American Farmer," by Hector Saint-John de Crevecoeur, who emigrated to the American colonies from France in 1754 and for many years led the life of a farmer. In a series of letters to an English friend he recounted in a charming way his impressions of America, its institutions and possibilities, the characteristics of the colonists, and his own experience as an agriculturist. The selection which follows is from a letter entitled "What is the American?" Conditions have changed greatly in 150 years and it is interesting to return to this early first impression, simple and clear cut, and compare it with the composite photograph somewhat blurred in outline, which, of necessity, constitutes our impression of the American of today.—The Editor.]

I wish I could be acquainted with the feelings and thoughts which must agitate the heart and present themselves to the mind of an enlightened Englishman, when he first lands on this continent. He must greatly rejoice that he lived at a time to see this country discovered and settled; he must necessarily feel a share of national pride, when he views the chain of settlements which embellishes these ex-

*The "Letters of an American Farmer," written by Crèvecoeur in both French and English has been recently edited and republished in its English form by Professor William P. Trent of Columbia University. These letters, which are really essays, bid fair to become one of the minor classics of American literature for they are charming in every sense. Professor Trent's admirable edition is published by Fox, Duffield and Co. \$1.50.

tended shores. When he says to himself, this is the work of my countrymen, who, when convulsed by factions, afflicted by a variety of miseries and wants, restless and impatient, took refuge here. They brought along with them their national genius, to which they principally owe what liberty they enjoy, and what substance they possess. Here he sees the industry of his native country displayed in a new manner, and traces in their works the embryos of all the arts, sciences, and ingenuity which flourish in Europe. Here he beholds fair cities, substantial villages, extensive fields, an immense country filled with decent houses, good roads, orchards, meadows, and bridges, where an hundred years ago all was wild, woody, and uncultivated. What a train of pleasing ideas this fair spectacle must suggest; it is a prospect which must inspire a good citizen with the most heartfelt pleasure. The difficulty consists in the manner of viewing so extensive a scene. He is arrived on a new continent; a modern society offers itself to his contemplation, different from what he had hitherto seen. It is not composed, as in Europe, of great lords who possess everything, and of a herd of people who have nothing. Here are no aristocratical families, no courts, no kings, no bishops, no ecclesiastical dominion, no invisible power giving to a few a very visible one; no great manufacturers employing thousands, no great refinements of luxury. The rich and the poor are not so far removed from each other as they are in Europe. Some few towns excepted, we are all tillers of the earth, from Nova Scotia to West Florida. We are a people of cultivators, scattered over an immense territory, communicating with each other by means of good roads and navigable rivers, united by the silken bands of mild government, all respecting the laws, without dreading their power, because they are equitable. We are all animated with the spirit of an industry which is unfettered and unrestrained, because each person works for himself. If he travels through our rural districts he views not the hostile castle, and the haughty mansion, contrasted with the clay-built hut and miserable cabin, where cattle and

man help to keep each other warm, and dwell in meanness, smoke, and indigence. A pleasing uniformity of decent competence appears through our habitations. The meanest of our log-houses is a dry and comfortable habitation. Lawyer or merchant are the fairest titles our towns afford; that of a farmer is the only appellation of the rural inhabitants of our country. It must take some time ere he can reconcile himself to our dictionary; which is but short in words of dignity, and names of honour. There, on a Sunday, he sees a congregation of respectable farmers and their wives, all clad in neat homespun, well mounted, or riding in their humble wagons. There is not among them an esquire, saving the unlettered magistrate. There he sees a parson as simple as his flock, a farmer who does not riot on the labor of others. (We have no princes, for whom we toil, starve, and bleed; we are the most perfect society now existing in the world.) Here man is free as he ought to be; nor is this pleasing equality so transitory as many others are. Many ages will not see the shores of our great lakes replenished with inland nations, nor the unknown bounds of North America entirely peopled. Who can tell how far it extends? Who can tell the millions of men whom it will feed and contain? for no European foot has as yet travelled half the extent of this mighty continent!

The next wish of this traveler will be to know whence came all these people? they are a mixture of English, Scotch, Irish, French, Dutch, Germans, and Swedes. From this promiscuous breed, that race now called Americans have arisen. The eastern provinces must indeed be excepted, as being the unmixed descendants of Englishmen. I have heard many wish that they had been more intermixed also; for my part, I am no wisher, and think it much better as it has happened. They exhibit a most conspicuous figure in this great and variegated picture; they too enter for a great share in the pleasing perspective displayed in these thirteen provinces. I know it is fashionable to reflect on them, but I respect them for what they have done; for the accuracy and

wisdom with which they have settled their territory; for the decency of their manners; for their early love of letters; their ancient college, the first in this hemisphere; for their industry; which to me who am but a farmer, is the criterion of everything. There never was a people, situated as they are, who with so ungrateful a soil have done more in so short a time. Do you think that the monarchical ingredients which are more prevalent in other governments, have purged them from all foul stains? Their histories assert the contrary.

In this great American Asylum, the poor of Europe have by some means met together, and in consequence of various causes; to what purpose should they ask one another what country they are? Alas, two-thirds of them had no country. Can a wretch who wanders about, who works and starves, whose life is a continual scene of sore affliction or pinching penury; can that man call England or any other kingdom his country? A country that has no bread for him, whose fields procure him no harvest, who met with nothing but the frowns of the rich, the severity of the laws, with jails and punishments; who owned not a single foot of the surface of this planet? No! urged by the variety of motives, here they came. Everything has tended to regenerate them; new laws, a new mode of living, a new social system; here they become men; in Europe they were as so many useless plants, wanting vegetative mould and refreshing showers; they withered, and were mowed down by want, hunger, and war; but now by the power of transplantation, like all other plants they have taken root and flourished! Formerly they were not numbered in any civil lists of their country, except in those of the poor; here they rank as citizens. By what invisible power has this surprising metamorphosis been performed? By that of the laws and that of their industry. The laws, the indulgent laws, protect them as they arrive, stamping on them the symbol of adoption; they receive ample rewards for their labors; these accumulated rewards procure them lands; those lands confer on them the title of

freemen and to that title every benefit is affixed which men can possibly require. This is the great operation daily performed by our laws. From whence proceed these laws? From our government. Whence the government? It is derived from the original genius and strong desire of the people ratified and confirmed by the crown. This is the great chain which links us all, this is the picture which every province exhibits, Nova Scotia excepted. There the crown has done all; either there were no people who had genius, or it was not much attended to; the consequence is, that the province is very thinly inhabited indeed; the power of the crown, in conjunction with the musketos has prevented man from settling there. Yet some parts of it flourished once, and it contained a mild harmless set of people. But for the fault of a few leaders, the whole were banished. The greatest political error the crown ever committed in America was to cut off men from a country which wanted nothing but men.

What attachment can a poor European emigrant have for a country where he has nothing? The knowledge of the language, the love of a few kindred as poor as himself, were the only cords that tied him: his country is now that which gives him land, bread, protection, and consequence: *Ubi panis ibi patria*, is the motto of all emigrants. What then is the American, this new man? He is either an European, or the descendant of a European, hence that strange mixture of blood, which you will find in no other country. I could point out to you a family whose grandfather was an Englishman, whose wife was Dutch, whose son married a French woman, and whose present four sons have now four wives of different nations. He is an American, who leaving behind him all his ancient prejudices and manners, receives new ones from the new mode of life he has embraced, the new government he obeys, and the new rank he holds. He becomes an American by being received in the broad lap of our great *Alma Mater*. Here individuals of all races are melted into a new race of men, whose labors

and posterity will one day cause great changes in the world. Americans are the western pilgrims, who are carrying along with them that great mass of arts, sciences, vigour, and industry which began long since in the east; they will finish the great circle. The Americans were once scattered all over Europe; here they are incorporated into one of the finest systems of population which has ever appeared, and which will hereafter become distinct by the power of the different climates they inhabit. The American ought therefore to love his country much better than that wherein either he or his forefathers were born. Here the rewards of his industry follow with equal steps the progress of his labor; his labor is founded on the basis of nature, self-interest; can it want a stronger allurements? Wives and children, who before in vain demanded of him a morsel of bread, now fat and frolicsome, gladly help their father to clear those fields whence exuberant crops are to arise to feed and to clothe them all; without any part being claimed, either by a despotic prince, a rich abbot, or a mighty lord. Here religion demands but little of him; a small voluntary salary to the minister, and gratitude to God; can he refuse these? The American is a new man, who acts upon new principles; he must therefore entertain new ideas, and form new opinions. From involuntary idleness, servile dependence, penury, and useless labor, he passed to toils of a very different nature, rewarded by ample subsistence.—This is an American.



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MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

THE CLASS OF 1907.

Every C. L. S. C. Class comes up to its graduation with an eagerness of anticipation which even to the old Chautauquan gives to the occasion an ever fresh interest. 1907 was no exception. Committees had been at work all through the year and preparations for every need of the graduating summer had been anticipated. As the attendance increased Class meetings were held more and more frequently and the members found great pleasure in comparing notes upon their four years' experiences. These were of the most diverse character — ministers, business men, housekeepers, teachers, and people of other occupations were represented. Some had come up out of no light tribulations, others had done the reading with ease, making excursions also into suggested fields of literature. A missionary's wife from the Batanga mission on the West Coast of Africa was among the graduates. She had seen few white faces during her four years of study. A letter from the Chautauqua Circle at San Jose, California, giving an account of its graduating exercises and sending photographs was read to the assembled class and evoked much enthusiasm. One evening was devoted to exercises appropriate to the unveiling of the Class banner, the gift of Mr. and Mrs. Charles E. Smith, of Franklin,

Pennsylvania. At the request of Mr. and Mrs. Smith the banner was presented by Dr. Hickman and was received by Professor George D. Kellogg, the president, who expressed very happily the sentiments of the Class. Cheers were given for Mr. and Mrs. Smith and the banner was at once installed in the post of honor in the Class room. The Class through its members contributed two beautiful portraits of Washington and a number of flags to the adornment of their room which they shared with '99, the "Patriots," and '91, the "Olympians." The '07 Class pins, both in gold and silver, were in great demand, and in raising the necessary funds for class expenses, enthusiasm carried the '07's so far that a snug little fund was left to provide furniture for their room so that Alumni Hall is permanently enriched by the gifts of the members of 1907.

Baccalaureate Sunday was a day such as the poet describes—"the bridal of the earth and sky" and a great audience assembled for the sermon by Chancellor Vincent. In the evening the new Athenian Watchfires were lighted for the first time for the Class Vigil in the Hall of Philosophy. It was a picturesque sight, the lights and shadows playing upon the classic columns of the Hall and the quiet audience within holding its vigil. Dr. Hurlbut presided at the Vigil and Professor Richard Burton to the great pleasure of the Class read from his own poems a number of those which seemed especially fitted to the hour and the place. On Recognition Day the 1907's to the number of more than one hundred and twenty passed through the gate and arches. The dark evergreen of the arches made a rich background for the brilliant tints of the salvia, the patriotic color which the Washington Class had chosen for its own. The Hall of Philosophy was filled to its utmost for the Recognition exercises and the unveiling of the 1882's Class tablet marked the first of a long series of such ceremonies which will stretch on into the years to come.

The brilliant Recognition Day address by President E. H. Hughes, the conferring of the diplomas by the Chan-



The C. L. S. C. Class of 1907 at the Hall of Philosophy, Chautauqua, N. Y.



Tablet of the Class of '82, the "Pioneers," in the Hall of Philosophy, Chautauqua, N. Y.

cellor, and the gathering of the Class to be photographed beside the Hall of Philosophy were incidents in this gala day of the 1907's and in the evening the Alumni Dinner of four hundred graduates brought the Class for the first time into the exclusive Society of the Hall in the Grove. The speeches, grave and gay, of this famous dinner were interspersed with the exuberant "First in war—first in peace" the cheer of the 1907's matched by the sturdy "Hear! Hear! Pioneer!" of the '82's. Then the chimes rang and the quarter-century celebration of the S. H. G. was over.

THE QUARTER CENTURY OF THE CLASS OF '82.

Not the exuberant enthusiasm of the Class of 1907, nor even the cheerful optimism of the new recruits for 1911 could keep up to the pace set by the "Pioneers" of '82. They came from a widespread territory, from Connecticut and Colorado and from the far Southland, some who had not seen Chautauqua for ten years, some for fifteen, and one



The Class Room of the "Pioneers" of '82, Chautauqua, N. Y.

who had not been back since her graduation in 1882. The Class register showed more than a hundred names and these well disciplined "Pioneers" faced the somewhat perilous experiences of steep hills, long marches, late hours, and much discussion of Class affairs with the same calm fortitude with which they had encountered sterner duties in the glorious days of '82, while the Pioneer "yell," heard on all fitting occasions, was given with dignity and abandon! The quarter century anniversary dinner is already historic in the annals of the Class. "Pioneer Hall" which is hung with trophies of the twenty-five years, was arrayed in holiday attire with boughs of evergreen and illuminated with the soft radiance of Japanese lanterns. Mrs. B. T. Vincent, as presiding officer, introduced the speakers. Dr. Hurlbut recalled the days of the "tent dwellers" when there was no C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua except as it was taking shape in the dreams of its founder. Miss Conoly, of Selma, Ala., referred to the pride which her State felt in being the birth-



The "Pioneers," Class of 1882, at Chautauqua, N. Y.



The Graduating Class of 1907 Reading the Responsive Service
at the Golden Gate, Chautauqua, N. Y.

place of Chancellor Vincent. Miss Kimball spoke of the character and helpful services of Mr. A. M. Martin, the first president of the Pioneers. Mrs. Gill established '82's standing as a world power by the story of her unexpected meeting with a member of the Class in Japan. Dr. W. A. Duncan recalled the circumstances under which the first Recognition Day procession was planned and executed; Miss Wightman contributed a poem on the Class motto "From Height to Height;" Mrs. G. W. Barlow responded to the toast of "Absent Pioneers" and Mrs. F. O. Bailey to "Pioneer Hall." Miss Wightman, the secretary, reported the receipt of forty-six letters of greeting from members of the Class, most of whom were unable to be present. But the names of all absent members who had responded were read and a number of greetings, among them one from a lady of fourscore and six, Sara Northrop of Washington, Pa. Chancellor Vincent's address closed the evening's exercises as arranged by the President, Mrs. B. T. Vincent, but the Pioneers for once stole a march on their chief executive,



► The New England, Middle West, and Cotton States at the C. L. S. C. Reception in the Hall of Philosophy, Chautauqua, N. Y.

reminding her that as she had served the Class with conspicuous fidelity for twenty-three years, it was their privilege to celebrate their silver anniversary by giving into her keeping a small silver casket whose contents would fittingly mark the years—twenty-five gold pieces amounting to one hundred and forty-five dollars. As the president responded in a happy little speech the wall of Pioneer Hall again rang with 1882's historic cheer:

Hear! Hear! Pioneer.
"Height to Height!"
Fight for right! Pioneer.
Who are you?
Who are you?
We are the Class of '82.
Pioneers! Ah!

In other exercises of this twenty-fifty anniversary week the '82's also bore a prominent part. They welcomed all C. L. S. C. visitors to Pioneer Hall on the eve of Recognition Day and sang their Class song written to "Auld Lang Syne" by Miss Mary A. Lathbury. Bright and early on the morning of Recognition Day they took their places in the procession and at the Hall of Philosophy immediately following the "Recognition" of the graduating class, their Class tablet was unveiled, the first of the beautiful mosaics which are to perpetuate the names and emblems of the various classes and form an artistic pavement for the floor of the Hall. The tablet was dedicated by Chancellor Vincent in the following words:

"This mosaic tablet as a memorial of the Class of 1882, we hereby place in this Hall as a part of its permanent pavement and as a feature of its decoration, and may they whose feet shall tread this pavement stand firmly on the Rock of Ages and dwell forever within the walls of that eternal city that hath foundations whose builder and maker is God."

These Chautauqua days were utilized by the '82's for many a cosy gathering in Pioneer Hall, to discuss Class affairs. The Class was photographed at the earliest opportunity, though all could not be present for this important event. The work of the tree committee which planted an elm and a birch in front of the Hall was commended. A plan for surrounding the '82 fountain with a hedge of ornamental shrubbery was considered, and Mrs. John C.

C. L. S. C. Round Table

This Certifies that

Mr. _____

having completed the Course of Reading of the

C. L. S. C.,

to his own satisfaction, is hereby authorized, encouraged, permitted and commissioned to read any other books accepted to his capacity, to teach as assistant in any primary school, and to associate with educated persons so far as they consent.



In testimony whereof we have caused these presents to be signed, in the absence of Dr. Vincent, General Grant, the President of the United States and Mr. Benson, by a well known gentleman, and have affixed thereto the great seal of the Holliston Circle.

Holliston, June 26, 1882.

John Smith.

Martin's generous gift of an ensign for the Class promises to give the Pioneers a unique standard. At the "quiet hour" gatherings held for a short time on Saturday evenings, Bishop Warren and Chancellor Vincent were welcome guests. A letter from a member of the Class in Japan added a pleasant international touch to the exercises of Recognition Day. The flags which came with it were unfurled and the letter read just after the dedication of the Class flag. The letter was dated Kwassui Jo Gakko, Nagasaki, Japan, July 16, 1907.

My Dear Fellow Pioneers:

How much I should like to be with the Class of '82 at this Silver Anniversary, I cannot tell. I send you my photograph and as you look at it consider that I am making my best bow to the Pioneers of 1907. I also send you two flags, the sun is the National flag and the one with rays is the Naval flag. The two pink and purple are Count Goto's personal flags. He is President of the Manchurian Railroad and this is his flag. At the Students' Federation Conference in Tokyo last April, the Count entertained over 200 foreign delegates and at the close of the banquet these flags were distributed among the guests as souvenirs of the occasion. I pass them on.

I pray that this Reunion may be one of blessing and unalloyed joy. With sincere regard.

ELIZABETH RUSSELL. 113

One of the reminiscences brought out by the '82 twenty-fifth anniversary was that of the graduating exercises celebrated by the Circle of Holliston, Mass., in 1882. Five members of this Circle were awarded special diplomas, one of which we have the privilege of reproducing here. They were designed and presented by Rev. George M. Adams, Mrs. Adams being the efficient president of the Circle during its first four years. Mr. A. W. Pike, one of the graduates, relates that each member wore a knot of white ribbon on which were printed the mystic letters W. Q. Z. X. K. The significance of this combination was never revealed but it was freely translated "We quite excel in zeal and knowledge."

THE C. L. S. C. AT CHAUTAUQUA.

It was especially fitting that one of the first C. L. S. C. Round Tables at Chautauqua this summer should have been conducted by Bishop Henry W. Warren, who as one of the original C. L. S. C. Counsellors had delivered the first Recognition Day address at Chautauqua in 1882. Many of that first C. L. S. C. Class had come back to celebrate their twenty-fifth anniversary and Bishop Warren's talk on "Old Chautauqua Days" seemed to establish a new relation between the present and the past. Indeed the Round Table hours throughout the season were keenly appreciated by C. L. S. C. members who frequently made good use of their privilege of questioning the speaker. Professor Stockton Axson of Princeton and Professor Boynton of the University of Chicago presented the claims of American literature in most alluring fashion, and Professor Shailer Mathews, who is known to thousands of Chautauqua students through his little volume on *The French Revolution*, conducted a delightful Round Table hour, taking for his subject Miss Addams' new book "*Newer Ideals of Peace*."

Rallying Day, August first, seemed to adapt itself quite naturally to the discussions of "Social Unrest" week in view of the emphasis which the coming American Year's course is placing upon social conditions as they relate to the immigrant problem in this country. A large crowd

gathered for the eleven o'clock Rallying Day exercises in the Amphitheater and brief stirring addresses were made on the C. L. S. C. The presence of Mr. John Graham Brooks, who is writing for Chautauqua readers the series on "As Others See Us," lent special interest to the occasion. Bishop Warren, Dr. Hurlbut, and Chancellor Vincent all made brief addresses. Dr. George D. Kellogg of Princeton spoke for the Class of 1907 of which he is president. Hon. Elmer E. Brown, U. S. Commissioner of Education, described his first experiences in connection with the Chautauqua movement, and President George E. Vincent summed up the course for the American year in a scholarly way, showing the essential unity of the plan.

The unpropitious weather led to the postponement of the Rallying Day Grove Reception until Saturday and even then it seemed advisable to transfer it from the woods to the Hall of Philosophy. This was the first time that the Hall had been used for this purpose and its advantages for such a gathering were very evident. Chancellor Vincent and Miss Jane Addams, whose lecture that afternoon closed the series on "Social Unrest," were the guests of honor. The booths representing various sections of the country welcomed their guests in characteristic fashion and the Class of 1911 had its first opportunity to receive its friends. The interest in the C. L. S. C. work expressed itself all through the season by frequent class meetings and by the steady attendance of members at the C. L. S. C. Councils where the delegates presented excellent reports and free discussions of all phases of the work gave everyone an opportunity both to give and to receive many helpful suggestions.

THE FRESHMAN CLASS.

The new C. L. S. C. Class of 1911 assumed its duties with much zeal and after some preliminary leanings toward the name of "Whittier" finally decided upon Longfellow as the Class poet. Enthusiasm developed rapidly and the variety of possible combinations for a suitable Class flower and emblem led to many original suggestions for a Class

banner. It was the first intention of the class to settle upon its motto and emblem while at Chautauqua this summer, but the advantage of having time to work out a scheme for a banner appealed so strongly to all that it was decided to leave the matter to be definitely settled next year. Meanwhile all the members who have artistic ideas, or who can make use of the talents of their friends are invited to make designs for a class banner, embodying some sentiment from Longfellow with a suitable flower, tree, or other emblem. Reference to the C. L. S. C. Class Directory in the back of this magazine will show what emblems have already been chosen by other classes. All designs should be sent to the President of the Class, Miss Mary E. Merington, 535 Massachusetts avenue, Buffalo, New York. They will be placed on exhibition next summer, and all who joined the Class this year at Chautauqua and all others who can come will be invited to make the final decision. Under the leadership of Miss Merington, the head of the "Outlook Club," the 1911's developed a strong social spirit which expressed itself in many friendly conferences, including a "tea" and a trip down the lake. The members began at once to make their contributions to the Alumni Hall fund for their Class headquarters, and to plan for their banner and the Class tablet in the Hall of Philosophy. It was agreed that if each member gave fifty cents a year the Class treasury would be overflowing by the time the 1911's came up for graduation.

The members planned very enthusiastically for the organization of circles and the enlistment of new members on their return home and every member is pledged to extend the boundaries of 1911 to the utmost.



THE CLASS OF 1908.

The 1908's, as is quite apt to be the case the year before graduation, showed a smaller attendance this summer than for some years past. In the unavoidable absence of the President, Professor Schmucker, other officers of

the Class guided the deliberations of the members, and committees were appointed and plans made for next summer with an assurance of a large attendance next year. Conferences were held with officers of other Classes to get the benefit of their experience, while the '08's were also evolving original ideas of their own. Items of interest regarding Class affairs may be looked for in the Round Table each month from now on.



Photographs of the '82 or 1907 Class groups can be secured from Mr. S. A. Espey, 715 Sandusky Street, Pittsburg, Pa. The price postpaid is thirty cents each. Mr. Espey prefers not to receive stamps and rather than experience this inconvenience will accept a postal note for twenty-seven cents, thus giving the sender the benefit of the fee.



THE BACKGROUND OF AMERICAN HISTORY.

Many Chautauqua readers in this American Year will find themselves impelled to turn now and then to their old school books to freshen their recollections of some of the main facts of American history, while studying in greater detail certain important influences in the development of the American people. Among more recent publications which attempt to survey the history of the United States in a single volume few offer a more alluring point of view than the admirable work of Miss Ellen Churchill Semple entitled "American History and its Geographic Conditions." This geographic aspect of history may be held to apply with peculiar fitness to a country like the United States because of its relatively recent origin and unprecedented growth from a group of struggling colonies to a world power. Certainly it is stimulating to the imagination to be placed in the position of one who from an elevated viewpoint is able to see the continent spread out before him and watch the successive generations in their irresistible westward march as they win a new world for civilization. The opening paragraph of Miss Semple's book at once impresses the reader with the world relations involved in tracing the history of such a people: "The most important geographical fact in the past history of the United States has been their location on the Atlantic opposite Europe; and the most important geographical fact in lending a distinctive character to their future history will probably be their location on the Pacific opposite Asia."

This is further emphasized by the striking contrast presented by Europe at the end of the fifteenth century, dominated by her Oriental connections, having as her only genuine sea powers the Hansa towns and the Italian cities, and the same Europe a century later when the "Mediterranean period" of her history was being superseded by the new era of the "Atlantic States of Europe." The Atlantic itself forecasts the triumph of the races gaining control of its far reaching coast line equal to that of the Pacific and Indian

oceans combined; an ocean which drains an area reaching from the Rockies and Andes to the plains of Central Russia and the highlands of Abyssinia. The familiar story of Anglo-Saxon supremacy and enterprise in the new continent is interpreted anew to many readers by the consideration given to geographic influences. The great Appalachian barrier which long confined the colonists to the sea coast was their early schoolmaster, enforcing isolation and shutting out the temptation to expansion. As Miss Semple puts it, "territory held industrially is held strongly. The thirteen colonies developed a solidarity which fought for them in the revolution." Nevertheless the eyes of the colonists were still turned toward Europe. It was only when the trans-Allegheny settlers broke through the mountain wall that their settlements "developed the first genuine Americans, men to whom the Atlantic coast fronting toward Europe was the Back Country." Miss Semple analyzes this westward expansion and its effect in educating the ideals of the people of the Eastern States so that the development of the national spirit did not long lag behind the opening up of new territory. Also that the size of our country has kept classes and masses on a nearly equal footing by equality of opportunity. Everywhere the Four Hundred tends to recruit itself from the four million near by.

Some of the great geographic questions which face the United States today are discussed at length. The steadily increasing stream of emigration over the line to Northwest Canada reveals the fact that we are yielding up some of our most valuable citizens to our northern neighbor, bringing us face to face with the problem of reclaiming the millions of acres of lands available in our own western country as soon as government irrigation methods shall render them habitable. New inland waterways, also awaiting development by the federal government, will yet work almost revolutionary changes in our transportation facilities. Such suggestive chapter titles as "Geographic Distribution of Cities and Industries," "The American Mediterranean," and "A Pacific Ocean Power" again remind the student that the civilization of this country is not only one of continental development but of world relations.

Few books can be recommended which will illuminate the studies of the American Year at so many points as this volume by Miss Semple. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3.00 net. Postage 20c.)

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.	INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY — May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.	INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.	ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.	RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.	
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.	
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.	
ADDISON DAY—May 1.	

C. L. S. C. Round Table

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR NOVEMBER.

FIRST WEEK—OCTOBER 29—NOVEMBER 5.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us." III. Who is the American?

In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America." Chapter IV. Nineteenth Century Additions Concluded.

SECOND WEEK—NOVEMBER 5-12.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us." IV. Our Talent for Bragging.

In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America." Chapter V. Industry.

THIRD WEEK—NOVEMBER 12-19.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: American Painting. Chapter II.

In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America." Chapter VI. Labor.

FOURTH WEEK—NOVEMBER 19-26.

In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America." Chapter VII. City Life, Crime and Poverty.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

Review and discussion of "As Others See Us." Chapter III.

Roll Call: Items of interest concerning the different nationalities among our later arrivals, their location, character, occupations, etc., each member being assigned one nationality (see report of Industrial Commission, Vol. XV., and report of Commissioner General of Immigration for 1906, also recent magazine articles).

Map Review: The continent of Europe with respect to the character of our immigrants (see map in the Report of the Commissioner of Immigration for 1906).

Reading: From article in *Century Magazine* 65:683 (March '03) entitled "What shall we be? The coming race in America."

Paper: "The Italian in this Country" (See Bulletin of U. S. Department of Labor No. 70 also "The Italian Cotton Grower: The Negro's Problem" *South Atlantic Quarterly* 4:45 (1905) and "The Italians in America," *Munsey's Magazine* (35:122). Many interesting facts supplementing those given by Mr. Commons will be found in these articles.

Book Review: "Italy To-day" by Bolton King, or study of charts in report of Commissioner of Immigration showing distribution of immigrants, occupations, etc.

SECOND WEEK.

Roll Call: Answered by reports on paragraphs in *Highways and Byways*.

Review of "As Others See Us." Chapter IV.

Informal Talk on Inducements to Immigration. (See Report of Commissioner General of Immigration for 1905, pp. 48-57 in which the whole subject is fully discussed. In the Commissioner's report for 1906 he says: "There is no reason to believe that the evil conditions there portrayed have been in the least reduced." Both reports can be secured upon application to the department at Washington.

Law: The Croatian Stave Cutters, Dr. Dowie's Lace Makers, Oral Reports: Three methods of Evading the Alien Contract Labor

Tailor Cases in Buffalo and Pittsburg (see report of Industrial Commission, vol. XV., pp. 666-70).

Debate: Resolved that the Chinese Exclusion Law does more harm than good (see "Why the Chinese Should be Excluded," *Forum*, 33: 53-58; "Why the Chinese should be Admitted," *Forum*, 33: 59-67; "Chinese Exclusion: A Benefit or a Harm," by Ho Yow, Imperial Chinese Consul General, *North American Review*, 173:314 (Sept. '01), also many recent articles under "Chinese" in Poole's Index for the last two years.)

Reading: Selections from "The Biography of a Chinaman," *Independent* 55: 417-23 (Feb. 19, 1903).

THIRD WEEK.

Roll Call: Each member to select the fact in Chapter VI. (Labor) which seems to him or her most worthy of careful study and why.

General Discussion of above chapter.

Debate: Resolved, That peonage is justified as a business necessity in dealing with backward races (see *Review of Reviews*, 28: 136-9 (August '03); *Outlook*, 74: 391, 486, 687, 732, 890; *Independent*, 55: 1616-18, "Forced Labor in West Virginia," *Outlook*, 74:7; "Peonage in America" H. D. Ward (*Cosmopolitan* 39: 423-30 (Aug. '05), also by R. Barry 42: 481-91 (March '07).

Reading: Selections from Myra Kelly's "Little Citizens"—or from her stories as published in *McClure's Magazine*, vols. 20: 485, 21: 130, 464 (March, June and September, 1903.)

Book Reviews: "Out of Work." Frances A. Kellor; or, "The Woman Who Toils." Mrs. John and Marie Van Vorst.

Oral Reports: On the following articles: "Working Hours of Women in Factories," M. Van Kleeck, *Charities*, 17: 13-21 (Oct. 6, '06); "Legal End of the Working Woman's Day," F. Kelley, *Charities*, 17: 459-60 (Dec. 15, 1906).

Review and Discussion of Article on "American Painting."

FOURTH WEEK.

Roll Call: Men and women of foreign birth who have attained eminence in this country.

Review of Chapter VII. in "Races and Immigrants in America."

Reports on public school conditions for foreign children in your community. (If a large city each member of the Circle may be assigned a section).

Reading: Selection from article in this magazine on "An immigrant sculptor of his kind."

Book Review: "Aliens or Americans." Howard B. Grose.

Exhibition of foreign newspapers published in your city or state.

A directory would help to supply this information. If the Circle is in a country place let several members be appointed to write to friends in different cities—papers can be secured for a few cents each, and the number available is likely to be surprising.

Reports on public institutions in which your community is directly interested. The City or County Poor House, the Pest House, places for the care of the feeble minded, insane, etc. Find out from the people who are on the advisory boards of these institutions whether they are behind the times and if so, what are their needs and the probable means for bettering conditions. Find out what proportion of the people in these institutions are of foreign birth?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON OCTOBER READINGS.

1. Any book or work of art that may be or is regarded as a standard or a model. 2. (a) A new word or phrase as yet unsanctioned by good usage. (b) The use of a word or phrase, old or new, in an unsanctioned sense. 3. By the Reform Bill of 1832. 4. An American Sculptor, born at Woodstock, Vermont, 1805; died at Florence in 1837. He modeled and repaired wax figures in a museum in Cincinnati for seven years; went to Washington in 1835 with a view to modeling busts of celebrated men; and established himself at Florence in 1837. Among his chief works are "The Greek Slave" (1843), "Il Penseroso," "The Fisher Boy," "America," "Eve," "California," "The Indian Girl," and numerous portraits and ideal busts. 5. A prominent English dramatic critic on the staff of the *London World* since 1884; born in 1856 in Perth, Scotland; educated at Edinburgh University; traveled in Australia in 1876-7; dramatic critic of *London Figaro*, 1879-81; traveled in Italy in 1881-82; barrister of Middle Temple 1883. He has edited and translated Ibsen's prose dramas, written "Life of Macready," "Masks and Faces: A Study in the Psychology of Acting," "Study and Stage—a Year Book of Criticism," 1899; "America Today," 1900; "Poets of the Younger Generation," 1901.



REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON NOVEMBER READINGS.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "AS OTHERS SEE US," CHAPTER III.

1. Why is it harder now to define the American than formerly? 2. How does Boston differ widely today from what it was fifty years ago? 3. How have the Jews prospered in New York City? 4. How many of them are now in the United States? 5. Name some of the characteristics ascribed to us as a people by our foreign critics. 6. How have generalizations been refuted, by wider experience or more recent critics? 7. What are the relative proportions of foreign born and native born in the chief sections of our country? 8. How does Prof. Münsterburg agree with our claim of being "hustlers"? 9. Is there an American accent? 10. How have critics characterized American children? 11. How characterized American women? 12. How do critics sometimes err in hasty generalizations? 13. Name some great citizen who suffered the reproach of being "un-American." 14. What should characterize a "good" American?

CHAPTER IV.: OUR TALENT FOR BRAGGING.

1. Were Dickens' caricatures of our spread-eagle style of patriotic oratory much exaggerated? 2. On what of our national characteristics do all foreign critics agree? 3. Are England and France free from self-laudation? 4. How do foreigners differ in their manner of praising their own countries and institutions? Compare the French, Dutch, Japanese, and English. 5. What does Mr. Bryce say of our national talent? 6. To what did Emerson liken the American eagle? 7. In what parts of the United States

is the tendency to brag the most noticeable? 8. How much of our boasting do you think is of a humorous sort? 9. Why do Americans run down their own country? 10. How much of our self criticism is justifiable? What tone should it take? 11. What did Lowell say of our national talent? 12. To what may our tendency to brag be in part attributed? 13. Is our weakness for self laudation less noticeable than formerly?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. When did Charles Dickens visit this country? 2. When was Thackeray here and what books did he write about us? 3. What did Dickens say in substance in his preface to late editions of "Martin Chuzzlewit" (subsequent to his second American visit)? 4. Was Dewey's victory at Manila comparable as a naval battle with the Battle of Trafalgar or that of the Sea of Japan? Why was it important? 5. Did the United States in your opinion ever engage in a war with a foreign power out of dishonorable motives?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "AMERICAN PAINTING."

1. How did American art receive a fresh impetus at the close of the Revolution? 2. For what besides his celebrated ride was Paul Revere noted? 3. Who was Ralph Earl? 4. Who was Henry Bembridge? 5. Who was John Ramage? 6. What was West's position in the English art world? 7. What was the character of his later work? 8. Why is the "Death of Wolfe" particularly important in the history of English art? 9. What were West's relations to younger artists? 10. With whom is Pealé's work chiefly associated?



C. L. S. C. Class Directory

UNDERGRADUATE CLASSES.

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Motto and Emblem to be chosen.

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Recording Secretary, Miss Florence Bonn, Baltimore, Md.

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Trustee, Mr. Albert B. Gemmer, Buffalo, N. Y.

C. L. S. C. Round Table

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Motto: "Life is a great and noble calling." Emblem: The Beech.

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Treasurer and Trustee, Mr. J. M. Berkey, 3442 Boquet St., Pittsburg, Pa.

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Motto: "To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield." Emblem: The Red Rose.

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Motto: "The aim of education is character." Emblem: The Scarlet Salvia.

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C. L. S. C. Round Table

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CLASS OF 1906—"JOHN RUSKIN."

Motto: "To love light and seek knowledge must be always right."

Emblem: The Lily.

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Class Poet: Robert Browning.

Motto: "A man's reach should exceed his grasp." Emblem: The Cosmos.

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Motto: "The horizon widens as we climb." Emblem: The Clematis.

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CLASS OF 1903—"QUARTER-CENTURY" CLASS.

Motto: "What is excellent is permanent." Emblems: The Cornflower: Three ears of corn (red, white, and blue).

President, Mrs. Alice M. Hemenway, Edgewood, Providence, Rhode Island.

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C. L. S. C. Round Table

CLASS OF 1902—"THE ALTRURIANS."

Motto: "Not for self, but for all." Emblem: The Golden Glow.

President, Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.

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CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY."

Motto: "Light, Love, Life." Emblem: The Palm.

President, Dr. Wm. S. Bainbridge, New York City.

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CLASS OF 1900—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

Motto: "Faith in the God of Truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavors." "Licht, Liebe, Leben."

Emblem: The Pine.

President, Miss Mabel Campbell, New York City.

Vice-presidents, Mrs. William J. Ritchey, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. Hannah Shur, El Paso, Illinois; Mrs. J. Preston Hall, Fredonia, N. Y.; Miss Mary T. Fuhrman, Shreveport, La.; Miss Frances Cuddy, Ponce, Porto Rico.

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Trustee, Miss Ella V. Ricker.

CLASS OF 1899—"THE PATRIOTS."

Motto: "Fidelity, Fraternity." Emblem: The Flag.

President, Captain J. A. Travis, 1008 E. Capitol street, Washington, D. C.

Vice-presidents, Miss Martha A. Bortle, Washington, D. C.; Mr. J. C. Martin, New York City; Mr. P. W. Bemis, Westfield, N. Y.

Secretary, Mrs. S. R. Strong, Chautauqua, New York.

Treasurer, Mrs. J. B. Ritts, Butler, Pa.

Trustee, Mr. J. W. Ford, Hiram, O.

CLASS OF 1898—"THE LANIERS."

Motto: "The humblest life that lives may be divine." Emblem: The Violet.

President, Mrs. E. S. Watrous, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Vice-presidents, Mrs. A. R. Halstead, South Orange, N. J.; Mrs. M. M. Findlay, Franklin, Pa.; Mrs. R. P. Hopper, Claremont, Ont.;

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Treasurer and Trustee, Miss Fannie B. Collins, Grand View, Ohio.

CLASS OF 1897—"THE ROMANS."

Motto: "Veni Vidi, Vici." Emblem: The Ivy.

President, Miss Mary Wallace Kimball, 27 W. 38th street, New York City.

Vice-presidents: E. P. Mackie, New Orleans, La.; W. H. Blanchard, Westminster, Vt.; Mrs. A. P. Crossgrove, Pilot Point, Tex.

Secretary, Miss Ella E. Smith, New Haven, Conn.

Assistant Secretary, Mrs. C. M. Thomas, Grove City, Pa.

CLASS OF 1896—"THE TRUTH SEEKERS."

Motto: "Truth is eternal." Emblems: The Forget-me-not. The Greek Lamp.

President, Mr. Frank D. Frisbie, Newton, Mass.

Vice-presidents: Miss Sarah E. Briggs, New Haven, Conn.; Mr. H. W. Sadd, Wapping, Conn.; Mrs. Cynthia A. Butler, Pittsfield, Ill.; Mrs. Mary Hogan Ludlum, St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. John D. Hamilton, Coraopolis, Pa.; Mrs. Frances Wood, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. Margaret A. Seaton, Cleveland, O.; Mr. Sidney R. Miller, Union City, Pa.; Dr. Wm. C. Bower, Lebanon, Kan.; Miss Mabel I. Fullagar, Penn Yan, N. Y.; Mr. Geo. H. Lincks, Jersey City, N. J.; Dr. Geo. W. Peck, Buffalo, N. Y.

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Trustee, Mr. J. R. Conner, Franklin, Pa.

CLASS OF 1895—"THE PATHFINDERS."

Motto: "The truth shall make you free." Emblem: The Nasturtium.

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President, Mrs. George P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.

Vice-presidents, Miss Mary Miller, Akron, Ohio; Mrs. E. H. Peters, Newark, N. J.; Mrs. O. A. Jones, Rimersburg, Pa.; Mrs. Charles, Cuba, New York.

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CLASS OF 1894—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

Motto: "Ubi mel, ibi apes." Emblem: The Clover.

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CLASS OF 1893—"THE ATHENIANS."

Motto: "Study to be what you wish to seem." Emblem: The Acorn.

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President, Rev. M. D. Lichliter, 1325 Otter street, Franklin, Pa.

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Class Trustee, Mr. T. H. Paden, New Concord, Ohio.

CLASS OF 1892—"THE COLUMBIANS."

Motto: "Seek and ye shall find." Emblem: The Carnation.

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CLASS OF 1891—"THE OLYMPIANS."

Motto: "So run that ye may obtain." Emblem: The Laurel and the White Rose.

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Vice-presidents: Miss Jennie Williamson, Louisville, Ky.; Miss Laura E. Dibble, Ashland, Ky.
Secretary, Mrs. L. L. Hunter, Tidioute, Pa.
Treasurer and Trustee, Miss M. A. Daniels, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Historian, Mrs. William Breeden, Jamestown, New York.

CLASS OF 1890—"THE PIERIANS."

Motto: "Redeeming the time." Emblem: The Tuberose.

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Motto: "Knowledge unused for the good of others is more vain than unused gold." Emblem: The Daisy.

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CLASS OF 1888—"THE PLYMOUTH ROCK."

Motto: "Let us be seen by our deeds." Emblem: The Geranium.

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CLASS OF 1887—"THE PANSY."

Motto: "Neglect not the gift that is in thee." Emblem: The Pansy.

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Motto: "We study for light to bless with light." Emblem: The Aster.

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Motto: "Press on, reaching after those things which are before." Emblem: The Heliotrope.

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Motto: "Press forward; he conquers who wills." Emblem: The Goldenrod.

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Motto: "Step by step we gain the heights." Emblem: The Sweet Pea.

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Motto: "From height to height." Emblem: The Hatchet.

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The



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*The Magazine of
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American Sensitiveness
and Peculiarities

American Painting

Simon Newcomb

Steerage Conditions

Greeting from President
Jordan, Leland Stanford

Chautauqua Press

Chautauqua, New York

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

THE MAGAZINE OF SYSTEM IN READING

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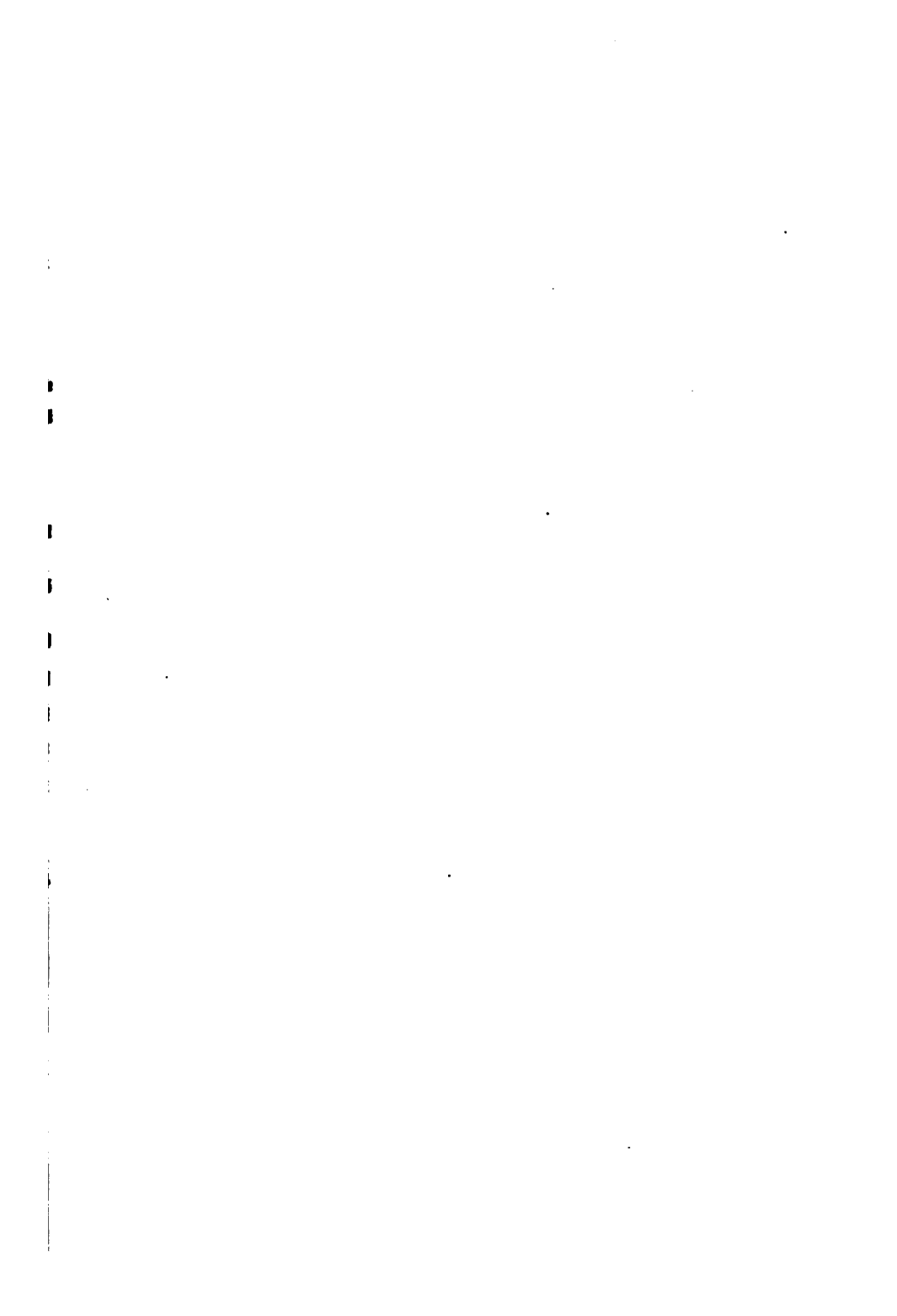
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Frances Anne Kemble

Celebrated English Actress and Writer, Author of "Journal of a Residence in America," and "Life on a Georgia Plantation."

(See "As Others See us," by John Graham Brooks, pages 321-355.)

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NOVEMBER, 1907.

No. 3.



THE immigration commission appointed last spring under an act of Congress has returned from Europe with fresh data and some new ideas and will make an elaborate report on the various aspects of the question which it studied practically. Whether it will recommend additional restrictions upon immigration in the form of educational tests, higher physical and property standards, etc., remains to be seen. Meantime the fact is remarkable that, in spite of heavier and heavier streams of aliens pouring into the country—the number of immigrants admitted in the last fiscal year was greater by 200,000 than the number admitted the year before, and that twelvemonth had broken all records—the supply of labor, especially of the unskilled kind, is inadequate in nearly every part and section of the United States. The new bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor that was established to facilitate the distribution of aliens by gathering and giving them accurate information as to work, land and resources, reports that there are vacant jobs and places for 230,000 workmen at good wages in the South, Northwest, and West. Even in the East the demand for labor is far in excess of the supply, for states like Pennsylvania, Maryland, and West Virginia are clamoring for immigrants and workmen. The mining regions have been short of “help” and there has been talk of a famine next winter in certain sizes and grades of coal. Railroad contractors have had great difficulty in getting labor to the camps, and the farmers have com-

plained more loudly than ever of the scarcity of labor for the harvesting season.

In some sections, notably in the South, the need of immigrants is so great that certain municipalities have welcomed newcomers with brass bands, speeches, and formal receptions. At New Orleans a free lunch was even served to a shipload of aliens, and addresses were made in four languages. Maryland is talking of a commission to visit Europe and make a special effort to divert immigration to that state.

The present industrial activity of the country is largely responsible for this situation, and the Panama Canal, Canadian railway construction and other great enterprises are undoubtedly contributory influences. One result will necessarily be to strengthen the opposition to the demands of organized labor and other elements for further restriction of immigration.



The Oklahoma Election and Constitution

The people of Oklahoma and Indian Territory voted on September 17 on the adoption of the constitutional charter that had been prepared for them and elected state officers. Though the proposed constitution had been attacked from many sources, and Secretary Taft had advised the Republicans to reject it on account of certain radical features, the returns showed that it had been adopted by a large majority. Even those citizens in the territories who disliked some of its provisions preferred it to the uncertainty and delay that would have followed rejection.

The constitution as finally submitted differed from the first draft of the constitutional convention. Attorney General Bonaparte and others had pointed out certain defects in it which they thought, might justify the President in withholding his approval, and the convention had met again to revise the instrument and meet the strongest of the objections that had been made. Even as it finally stood it

was an "advanced" constitution, incorporating liberal referendum provisions and limiting the power of courts to punish men for contempt for violations of injunctions—to mention only two of the "contentious" features. But other radical things have been eliminated or modified in a conservative direction. Among these are—the prohibition of appeals from state to federal courts by corporations chartered by other states, the prohibition of punishment for contempt, and the provision that the people might enact laws over the heads of the hostile legislatures by the process of the referendum.

Shortly before the election a new enumeration of the population of the two territories was made by order of the national executive. It was found that the total population exceeded 1,400,000. In 1900 the population was given by the census as less than 800,000, and if both sets of figures for the sister territories were correct at the time the respective enumerations took place, their growth has been extraordinary since 1900.

As a new State Oklahoma would have more population than a good many of the older commonwealths; she would stand 27th on the list of States in the Union. No State ever opened its career with greater claims to independence and sovereignty as regards population, its intelligence and character, its material resources and prospects of growth. The Indians number only 10,000. The people, by the way, largely for the sake of Indians, voted to make Oklahoma prohibition territory for 21 years. This condition had been exacted only of Indian Territory, but Oklahoma voluntarily adopted prohibition and thus illustrated the remarkable growth of that movement and sentiment.

Local sentiment has had its effect, and it is now certain that the President will approve and proclaim the Oklahoma Constitution, in spite of certain objections he still entertains toward it—objections that do not, however, affect the "Republican character" of the proposed government of Oklahoma.

The Railroads, the States, and the Courts

There has been less excitement in the "rate fights" between the several States and the railroads affected by the 2-cent fare and other legislation, but the last few weeks have not failed to bring important developments. Two Pennsylvania courts of the first instance have declared the new 2-cent fare of that State unconstitutional as regards certain railroads, chiefly because the latter had contended and introduced testimony to show that the new rate would take away their profits, or reduce these below the proper, lawful level. The railroads in these cases did not apply for federal writs of injunction; in deference to public opinion they appealed to the State courts and announced that in any event they would obey the new law pending the final judicial determination of the issue. Should the Supreme Court of the State sustain the act, they will appeal to the Federal Supreme Court; but they thought it unwise to evince distrust and disrespect for the State courts. If all the railroads had adopted this course, the States' rights cry would never have been raised, and no popular indignation would have been aroused.

At any rate, in one way or another the rate reduction acts are finding their way into the courts, and all will be finally subjected to the test of "reasonableness." The acts that are not "confiscatory," in the opinion of the courts, will stand, while the others will go into the legislative wastebaskets. All the states interested, except one, are ready to abide by the judgments of the courts on the question of constitutionality. The exception is Georgia.

To the authorities of Georgia it has occurred that another question might be raised, and that one, if upheld, would deprive the federal courts of all jurisdiction in State rate cases. These cases have all been brought under the 14th amendment to the national Constitution—under that provision of it which prohibits the States from depriving any person of life, liberty or property without due process of law. Originally this provision was intended for the bene-

fit of the then newly-enfranchised negro, but, as every one knows, it has since been extended to many questions of corporate and individual rights. No provision has been more frequently cited in legal suits and cases, and to the majority it seems as firm as a rock.

But Georgia, it appears, proposes to attack it in demurrers to complaints against her new railroad rate act. She does not admit that the act is unjust or confiscatory, but she intends to raise the point—a novel one—that the 14th amendment was never properly ratified by the States—that is, by the necessary three-fourths—and never became part of the Constitution. Hence, even if any State acts are confiscatory, the Supreme and other Federal Courts have no power to set them aside, and relief must be obtained on some other ground—if at all.

This point has excited much interest. The 14th amendment, it is true, was not popular. It took over two years to secure its ratification, and in the South reconstruction alone made such ratification possible. Even in the North certain States either rejected it or sought to recall their ratifications.

Few care to predict success for this Georgia move, for the amendment has been regarded as part of the constitution for nearly 40 years. Yet the legal battle may be extremely interesting and educational.



Candidates and Political Issues

The "preliminary" campaign for the presidential nominations of the two great parties is now in the "straw vote" and "private test" stage. Secretary Taft is traveling abroad, and while his supporters are actively working for him and securing indorsements of his candidacy from state conventions, and while his address on his recent tour strengthened his cause with the people, his absence from the country is creating opportunities for other candidates. One of the most significant developments of the last several weeks is

the steady growth of Gov. Hughes as a national figure and presidential possibility "in spite of himself." He has made a number of speeches in New York and elsewhere, and all have been characterized by the qualities of sound sense, progressive spirit, sympathy with just and constructive demands for reform, and contempt for the cheap arts of the professional politician. Newspapers all over the country are recognizing the firmness, the high-mindedness, the rectitude and the efficiency of the New York executive, and speak of him as a man to reckon with in national politics.

Senator Knox's candidacy has been slightly stimulated by the indorsement of the Pennsylvania Republican clubs, and the little booms of Messrs. Cannon, Fairbanks, and others have not been wholly neglected. Roosevelt "third-term" sentiment has not been suppressed, in spite of the President's attitude and his known support of the Taft movement; curiously enough, this sentiment is cropping out even among Southern Democrats, who favor the continuation of the Roosevelt policies while personally friendly to Mr. Bryan as "the logical Democratic candidate."

The Chicago *Tribune*, the New York *Times*, and the Brooklyn *Eagle* have been taking straw ballots or sending out circular letters to ascertain the popularity of the several candidates. The most elaborate was that of the first-named newspaper, and here are the results it produced.

Of the 4,513 answers received from Republican leaders, editors and politicians, over 4,000 expressed approval of the Roosevelt policies, and only 343 expressed disapproval; 3,626 favored a "progressive" candidate, and 614 a conservative one. As to candidates, Taft was the "first choice" of 2,112, Roosevelt of 689, Hughes of 660, and La Follette, Cannon, etc., of smaller numbers. Many more would have voted for Roosevelt, if they had regarded him as a possible candidate. As it is, they declared for Taft as the natural successor of his present chief and best known exponent of the latter's views. But when it comes to "second choice" Hughes received 1,518 votes and Taft 831. It

should be added, however, that Hughes has more conservative support than Taft, chiefly on account of his action in vetoing a 2-cent fare bill for the New York railroads.

In the Democratic camp the situation at this time is even less clear than in the other. A few months ago the drift was unmistakably toward Mr. Bryan. The conservative or safe wing of the party, it was said on all sides, had had its opportunity and had utterly failed. The people were in a "radical mood" and no reactionary or time-serving politician stood the "ghost of a chance." If, then, the progressives were to name the candidate of the Democracy, was not Bryan the man for the hour? But latterly, we are assured, Democrats in the West and South have been turning away from the Nebraska leader and considering other candidates. In the cities of the South this tendency is strongly marked, judging by press opinions and like indications. The country districts are still loyal to Mr. Bryan.

Col. Henry Watterson of Kentucky has suggested Gov. Johnson of Minnesota as the most promising candidate. The East has no prejudice against him, he is strong in the West, he is progressive and able, and he has the prestige of success. He would reunite the Democrats and attract Republican votes, argues Colonel Watterson. But Governor Johnson is in no sense a candidate, though he has not said that he would not accept the nomination. Mr. Bryan is urged and advised to throw his influence and his political capital to Johnson for the sake of party solidarity and the prospects of victory.



Progress and Alarm in China

Strange and disquieting reports have been coming from China of late. Native and competent foreign observers believe that a formidable revolt is certain to break out in the empire. It will not be anti-foreign, but anti-Manchu. Even the court is said to be expecting it, and the aged empress-

dowager is seeking, by reforms, promises and changes in the personnel of the administration, to avert it. Some recent riots and attacks on Manchu officials prematurely disclosed the movement, but it has not been checked, apparently, and the empress has turned her attention to the problem of consolidating the two races and doing away with the centuries-old antagonism between the "invaders" and the natives.

Good authorities believe that such amalgamation is not impossible, but radical measures would be required to bring it about. The Manchu privileges in the army and civil service would have to be abolished; intermarriage of the royal house with Chinese princes, so as to render a Chinese heir to the throne possible, would be indispensable; and all signs of Chinese subordination and inferiority would have to be done away with. The empress is reported to have acquiesced in four measures with this end in view, but none of them is fundamental. They are: The disbanding of the Manchu banner troops, the abolition of their pensions, the prohibition of the Chinese practice of binding the feet of their women, and the adoption of surnames by the Manchus.

Further, though the empress is generally regarded as an arch-reactionary, and was accused of sympathy and secret understanding with the Boxer leaders, she is issuing reform decrees and ordering the removal of ancient abuses. As a rule, nothing comes of these decrees, for the viceroys and the bureaucracy disregard them as "purely Pickwickian;" yet the present decrees seem to mean something, for the empress has been appointing to high office known liberals and progressives. It has again been reported that the imperial counsellors have been ordered to study the Japanese constitution and other parliamentary systems, and to prepare the Chinese for the introduction of representative government.

Whether or not the empress dowager be sincere in her measures, it is believed that her death, which cannot be very distant in the nature of things, in view of her years and physical infirmities, would be followed by an era of great reforms, for the emperor, Kwang Sü, was formerly a sup-

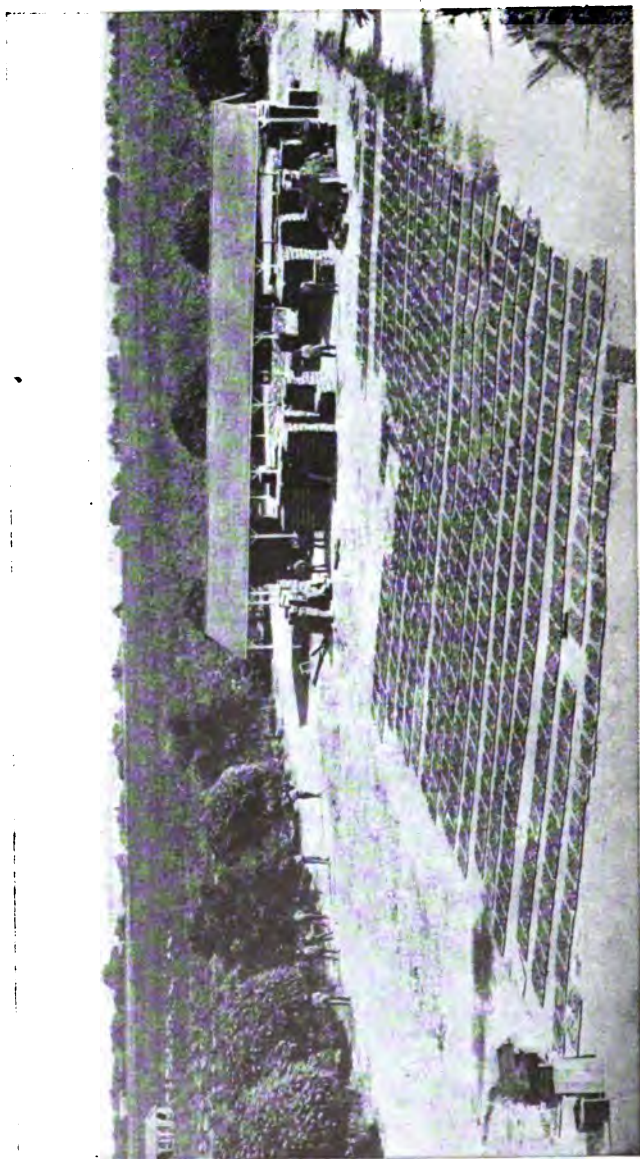


Charles N. Haskell, newly elected Governor of Oklahoma. Arthur T. Hadley, President of Yale University, who has recently gone to Berlin to take the Theodore Roosevelt Professorship of American History and Institutions in the University of Berlin. Edwin G. Cooley, Superintendent of Chicago Schools, newly elected President of the National Educational Association.



FIRST STEPS.

—From the Minneapolis Journal.



A New Mexico Fruit Farm—An Illustration taken from a Railroad Pamphlet. The American Immigration Problem is in part solved by the railroads, which seek to induce settlers to buy farmlands in the South and West.

porter of the liberal movement and lost his power because of his "revolutionary" tendencies. Unfortunately the reactionary elements are still strong and aggressive, and the anticipated revolt may be used as an excuse for postponing reform indefinitely. At any rate, all signs point to portentous developments in the immense empire, and even the intervention of foreign powers in the interest of order and commerce is contemplated as a serious possibility.



Improved Prospects in Morocco and Korea

We have spoken in earlier numbers of the dangers to the peace of the world inherent in the troubles in Morocco and in the Korean complications. There has been considerable improvement in both of these quarters. The warlike tribes that threatened Casablanca and necessitated the military campaign of France and Spain in Korea have made peace with the commander of the foreign forces, and the terms they were compelled to accept seem to promise the reestablishment of order. France is greatly relieved at the knowledge that it will not be necessary to make an expedition into the interior and thus take the risk of provoking a fanatical "holy war" of the tribes against the Christian invaders. She is perhaps even more relieved at the disappearance of the possibility of serious friction with Germany over the Moroccan question. The latter power has watched with jealousy and distrust every move of French diplomacy and French arms in the Moorish kingdom, and has insisted on strict conformity to the Algeciras treaty. An extension of the rebellion and war might have made such conformity extremely difficult. As it is, France has gained moral prestige in Morocco by the success of her arms and finds herself under no necessity of occupying territory and unduly interfering with internal affairs.

The country is still disturbed, the Algeciras reforms remain to be carried out, and the sultan's authority is challenged by a "pretender," his own half-brother, who pro-

fesses to be more liberal and more friendly to the Europeans. What the powers will do in the event of civil war over the Moroccan throne is an open question. So far they have refrained from extending any recognition to the pretender, doubting his good faith as well as his strength with the tribes.

In Korea a new treaty has been concluded which converts that kingdom into a dependency of Japan. The real responsibilities of government and administration have been taken over by Japan, and only the empty form of power and "independence" is left to the native court. The native army has been disbanded—not without some resistance and slight disorder—and the people have been "pacified."



Canada and Japanese Immigration

The troubles of the Japanese in San Francisco which produced so much excitement in Japan and even led to aggressive talk of war with the United States have "paled into insignificance" beside the anti-Japanese riots and demonstrations on the part of the women and other citizens of Vancouver. That Japanese laborers should be mobbed and their houses and stores attacked and burned on "British soil" is a very disagreeable fact not only to Japan, the ally of England that has greatly profited morally and materially by the friendship of that great power, but to the government and people of the United Kingdom as well. Severe and lofty were the comments of the English press on the San Francisco-Japanese school incident and certain minor disturbances; it was calmly assumed that nothing of the kind could possibly happen on British territory. Japan naturally made the same assumption. The event has disabused them. The anti-Japanese sentiment throughout British Columbia is as strong as it is in any of our Pacific states, and even in the other Canadian provinces there is a growing movement in favor of Japanese exclusion.

At present Japanese laborers have unrestricted entry

into Canada. The legislature of British Columbia has two or three times passed an act providing that no one shall be admitted into the province who does not speak at least one European language. This would have shut out the Japanese and Chinese and other Asiatics without naming them. But the Dominion and imperial governments have objected to and vetoed such legislation, as it conflicted with the foreign policy and imperial interests of England. Chinese coolies have had to pay a head tax of \$500 in British Columbia, and this has all but stopped their "invasion." The Japanese have of late been arriving at the rate of 400 a month, and the white workmen of British Columbia complain that this influx has depressed wages and made many of them idle and destitute.

The anti-Japanese sentiment is by no means confined to labor. The farmers and merchants appear to share it, disliking the Japanese as neighbors, resenting their ambitious and independent spirit, and regarding them as dishonest, utterly undesirable for citizenship. The capitalists and contractors deny that the labor market is oversupplied or that the wage level has been lowered by the Japs, but they are in a small minority, and impartial correspondents declare that all British Columbia is determined to put an end to Japanese coolie immigration. So liberal-minded a thinker as Goldwin Smith sympathizes with this demand and assures England that Canada at large is also anti-Japanese in this sense. He recently—before the Vancouver riots—wrote as follows:

"A very serious question and one which threatens to involve Canada and the United States in common difficulty—if not danger—is beginning to loom. It is that of the settlement of Chinese and Japanese on the Pacific coast of this continent. Both races are in somewhat different ways unassimilable by us. The gulf which divides them from us, morally, mentally and in the case of the Chinese politically, appears almost impassable; at least to bridge it would be the work of generations. Yet come apparently they will. England has, in fact, bound us to admit the Japanese by her alliance with them, the fruit of a prejudice against Russia and fear of her designs which might almost be

called hallucination. We see in this that the great foreign policy of Great Britain is not always identical with ours. Admitting the Japanese, we could hardly exclude the Chinese, especially if, as seems highly probable, a close relation should be formed between China and Japan. Already they are settling here in considerable numbers, way being made for the introduction of their labor by the strikes. The influx of the Japanese coming here under the shield of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, into the United States can hardly be prevented, and may cause trouble with the American Government. . . . Of 858 Japanese arriving at Victoria, 781 were males and only 77 were females. It is needless to say what moral dangers such a disparity of sexes, which is still greater in the case of the Chinese, involves. Will government ever pay attention to this matter?"

All agree that the problem is "difficult and acute," and that local feeling cannot be lightly disregarded. But will Japan accept a treaty providing for the exclusion of her laborers from Canada and other British colonies—and, of course, from the United States as well? England can hardly ask for such a treaty at this time, while Japan is her ally and friend. But sooner or later the question will have to be met and answered.



The Hindu Immigrant Also in Trouble

The native of British India is a British subject, yet he finds the doors of white men's countries closed against him. Hindu immigration is everywhere deemed a menace and a misfortune. Australia and New Zealand practically exclude it, objecting to Hindu sailors even on mail steamers. South Africa does not want them, and the new Transvaal government has declared them ineligible for citizenship. Natal has many thousands of them under contracts that savor of servitude, and imposes all sorts of restrictions on their movements and their commerce. Canada likewise has no love for them, and even in Jamaica there is a hostile sentiment against them.

These facts should be taken into account in considering the recent outbreaks against Hindu coolies in the State

of Washington and in British Columbia. In the former place some Hindus were mobbed and maltreated by street hoodlums. At Vancouver a ship that had over a hundred Hindus, with some Japanese, on board was prevented from landing her human cargo. The mayor declined to assume responsibility for their safety and to guarantee protection. They had to be taken to Victoria, where they were landed with difficulty in the teeth of demonstrations and demands that they be sent by a special train to Ottawa and "dumped" there on the federal government.

Whether the English government can reconcile Indian with Canadian, South African and Australasian wishes and interests is doubtful. It can hardly permit the self-governing colonies to exclude Hindu laborers, yet free immigration of them is certain to lead to riots and bitter conflicts. The Indian government has a freer hand, however. It has so far discouraged and regulated emigration, and as a result of its measures only about 10,000 coolies leave the country annually never to return. The net emigration has been small for an immense empire of 300,000,000 inhabitants, many of whom are subject to chronic starvation and danger of disease and epidemic. It will have to be kept small. Any noticeable increase in the net emigration would cause widespread alarm and emphatic demands for instant exclusion legislation.



Note and Comment

English ignorance of American affairs has not been confined to the nineteenth century. Even during our colonial days the English newspapers contained fabulous stories concerning American conditions of life, natural scenery, trade and commerce and the like. Benjamin Franklin on a visit to London in 1766 made game of this insular ignorance in a mock serious letter to the daily papers. A quotation from this letter may prove interesting:

"I beg leave to say that all articles of news that seem improbable are not mere inventions. The very tails of the American sheep are so laden with wool, that each has a little car or wagon on four wheels, to support and keep it from trailing on the ground. Would they caulk their ships, would they even litter their horses with wool, if it were not both plenty and cheap? And what signifies

the dearness of labor when an English shilling passes for five-and-twenty? Their engaging three hundred silk throwsters here in one week for New York was treated as a fable, because, forsooth, they have 'no silk there to throw.' Those, who make this objection, perhaps do not know, that, at the same time the agents from the King of Spain were at Quebec to contract for one thousand pieces of cannon to be made for the fortification of Mexico, and at New York engaging the usual supply of woollen floor carpets for their West India homes; other agents from the Emperor of China were at Boston treating about an exchange of raw silk for wool, to be carried in Chinese junks through the Straits of Magellan.

"And yet all this is as certainly true, as the account said to be from Quebec, in all the papers of last week, that the inhabitants of Canada are making preparations for a cod and whale fishery 'this summer in the upper Lakes.' Ignorant people may object, that the upper Lakes are fresh, and that cod and whales are salt water fish: but let them know, sir, that cod, like other fish when attacked by their enemies, fly into any water where they be safest; that whales, when they have a mind to eat cod, pursue them wherever they fly; and that the grand leap of the whale in the chase up the Falls of Niagara is esteemed, by all who have seen it, as one of the finest spectacles in nature."



In the old coaching days, a group of Harvard professors, including Agassiz, Asa Gray and other scientists, started on a trip through the country. President Hill, who rode on the box with the driver, was occasionally importuned by the scientific enthusiasts inside to stop the coach while they strolled forth in search of specimens. Pat, the driver, looked on with sympathetic curiosity. The title "Doctor" seemed to explain the status of the man beside him but he was sadly puzzled by the erratic behavior of the rest of the company. Dr. Hill's explanation "A party of naturalists" seemed to satisfy him. "Indade," he replied, and lapsed into an acquiescent silence. Just then the return coach rounded a turn and its driver seeing Pat's vehicle apparently stranded by the roadside while the occupants wandered about, hailed him, "An' fwhat's them you got?" "Whist," rejoined Pat in a stage whisper, "a party of naturals. It's their keeper who's just after tellin' me."



The following quotation from Galt's life of Benjamin West, the colonial painter, is famous, and so entertaining that it should be true:

"The young artist (West) was sent to school in the neighborhood of his home. During his hours of leisure he was permitted to draw with pen and ink; for it did not occur to any of the family to provide him with better materials. In the course of the summer a party of Indians came to pay their annual visit to Springfield, and being amused with the sketches of birds and flowers which Benjamin showed them, they taught him to prepare the red and yellow colors with which they painted their ornaments. To these his mother added blue, by giving him a piece of indigo, so that he was thus put in possession of the three primary colors. The

fancy is disposed to expatiate on this interesting fact; for the mythologies of antiquity furnish no allegory more beautiful; and a painter who would embody the metaphor of an artist instructed by Nature, could scarcely imagine anything more picturesque than the real incident of the Indians instructing West to prepare the prismatic colors. The Indians also taught him to be an expert archer, and he was sometimes in the practice of shooting birds for models, when he thought that their plumage would look well in a picture.

"His drawings at length attracted the attention of the neighbors; and some of them happening to regret that the artist had no pencils, he inquired what kind of things these were, and they were described to him as small brushes made of camel's hair fastened in a quill. As there were, however, no camels in America, he could not think of any substitute, till he happened to cast his eyes on a black cat, the favorite of his father; when, in the tapering fur of her tail, he discovered the means of supplying what he wanted. He immediately armed himself with his mother's scissors, and laying hold of Grimalkin with all due caution, and a proper attention to her feelings, cut off the fur at the end of her tail, and with this made his first pencil. But the tail only furnished him with one, which did not last long, and he soon stood in need of a further supply. He then had recourse to the animal's back, his depredations upon which were so frequently repeated, that his father observed the altered appearance of his favorite, and lamented it as an effect of disease. The artist, with suitable marks of contrition, informed him of the true cause; and the old gentleman was so much amused with his ingenuity, that if he rebuked him, it was certainly not in anger."



It is said that Stuart's paintings being like a mosaic of tints had great beauty and brilliance but required distance to allow the juxtaposed colors to blend; it annoyed him greatly to see people examine them too closely. To a visitor who scrutinized his painting as if it were a miniature, Stuart exclaimed irritably, "Well, sir, does it smell good?"



Copley's famous painting of a shark attacking the boy Watson whose leg was bitten off by the monster, recalls a story of Watson's later life. On one occasion he was stopping at a hotel and requested a servant to pull off his boot. To the man's astonishment Watson's leg came off with it! When questioned as to how he happened to lose his leg, Watson replied that he would tell if no further questions were asked. The information that it was "bit off" left poor Boots no resource but to scratch his head and remark wistfully, "How I wish I could ask one more."



A Century of Foreign Criticism on The United States--A Study of Progress.*

V. Some Other Peculiarities.

By John Graham Brooks

IF there was an excess of emphasis in the last chapter upon a single alleged characteristic, it is because foreign comment on our boastfulness has itself such emphasis and unanimity. Upon no other one thing is there entire agreement. That we are sordid in our love of money is asserted by a majority of these onlookers, yet some of our ablest censors, as we shall see, now come gallantly to our defense against this charge. That our manners are pretty bad is very commonly said, but this, too, is denied by at least a few first-rate foreign judges. The variations in opinion are found about every peculiarity noted in this chapter. Some will have it that our democracy is full of envy; others, as Professor Münsterberg, deny this. The "American voice" excites almost universal dislike, yet it has here and there a defender. But through the century, so far as I could learn, not a single voice is heard to defend us against the charge that our gift for bragging has no international competitor.

*Mr. Brooks' series will continue throughout the reading year (September-May). The articles which have already appeared are: I. The Problem Opened; II. Concerning our Critics (September). III. Who is the American?; IV. Our Talent for Bragging (October).

Our, frailties, queernesses, peculiarities, distinctions, make a rather portentous showing. To begin in lighter vein and with external characteristics, we can be spotted in any part of the world by the way our elbows rest upon the table. This trait vexed a French *savant* until he discovered our habit of eating corn from the cob. If for some exceptional reason this sign fail we may be known by our manner of eating soup. We are the only people who fill the spoon by first moving it *away from the body*.^{*} This lacks something of the simplicity of the corn-on-the-cob theory. It also, as I have proved by investigation, excites incredulity among many Americans who assert that since they could be trusted with soup, the spoon has been filled by moving it *toward* the body. The amount of gold displayed in the teeth is another safe token. As we have the best "fire brigades" because of the frequency of our fires, so we have the best dentists because our teeth are so bad. A Frenchman hears that girls in the United States are often married with no other dowry than the gold "mined into their teeth." In any European crowd we may be known by our "inability to keep still" or by a "certain facial pallor." As we are studied in our own habitat, there is great "monotony" or "lack of variety" in our lives and ideals; rooted suspicion toward people and things we do not understand; lack of thoroughness in our habits and undertakings; slight capacity for pleasure for its own sake; we are "very silent;" we are the most sensitive of peoples under criticism; we are lawless, especially about everything that touches our business interests; we put up supinely with small injustices against which other nations kick.[†] Especially the French, endow us with a miraculous instinct for

^{*}One budding naturalist among our visitors is delighted to find in Anthony Trollope an account of the American squash. It was often served to him but he "had no conception of its origin." Now he learns that it is the "pulp of the pumpkin."

[†]Dr. A. S. Crapsey, for twenty-eight years active as a clergyman in Rochester, N. Y., in speaking of "the hundreds of orders and associations" in that community, says "They are so fundamentally a part of our social life that our civilization would fall to pieces without them."

creating all forms of associational activity. M. de Tocqueville writes:*

"In no country in the world has the principle of association been more successfully used, or applied to a greater multitude of objects, than in America. Besides the permanent associations, which are established by law, under the names of townships, cities, and counties, a vast number of others are formed and maintained by the agency of private individuals."

Chevalier says:

"The Yankee type exhibits little variety; all Yankees seem to be cast in the same mould; it was, therefore, very easy for them to organize a system of liberty for themselves, that is, to construct a frame, within which they should have the necessary freedom of motion."

Then, of his own French people he writes:

"As for us, who resemble each other in nothing, except in differing from everybody else."†

These modern writers, from De Rousier and Professor Vigoroux to the last book of Paul Adam, continue to note this quality. M. Adam is so struck by it that he speaks of it as more peculiarly our distinction than the aggressive individualism which most writers identify with our character and society.

If our political and social pretensions as expressed in our Declaration and patriotic literature are serious, we must be said to exhibit a most unexpected aptitude for snobbery. Both de Tocqueville and Laboulaye find amusement in the desire of Americans to have it known as soon

*"Democracy in America," p. 242.

†Chevalier was a man of the world and a wise one but these quoted words offer so dainty a bit of obtuseness and provincialism that they deserve comment. The Eastern traveler Palgrave, says that practically the whole East in his time honestly thought all Europeans alike. They in the East were, of course, profoundly different one from another, but to the inhabitants of Bagdad or Mosool, there was not the slightest difference between a Frenchman, an Englishman, or a German, nor could they be made to understand the most obvious distinctions. Hamerton says that to the average Frenchman the English are pretty much alike. "Each nation is aware that there is now, and always has been in past times, an infinite variety of character within its own border, but it fails to imagine that a like variety can exist in a foreign country."

as possible that they are probably descended from certain distinguished English families. On this point a great deal of embarrassing evidence is given from the behavior of many Americans in Europe, from the agility with which purchasable titles are clutched at in marriage, and from the amazing extension of societies ready to furnish heraldic blazonry (for a consideration) to all comers.* Harriet Martineau has much to say about snobbishness in the older cities. Boston was even more intolerable to her than it was to H. G. Wells. As she had taken our pretensions to equality seriously, she expresses her first surprise to find that the most interesting people are so sharply separated by social barriers. In Philadelphia she makes inquiries about the cultivated superiorities and is told, "that the mutual ignorance was from fathers of the Arch Street ladies having made their fortunes, while the Chestnut Street ladies owed theirs to their grandfathers. Another, who was amused at a new fashion of curtsying, just introduced, declared it was from the Arch Street ladies rising twice on their toes before curtsying, while the Chestnut Street ladies rose thrice. I was sure of only one thing in the matter; that it was a pity that the parties should lose the pleasure of admiring each other, for no better reasons than these: and none better were apparent."†

Among our "grands traits," De Nevers insists that a supercilious exclusiveness (*l'exclusivisme dédaigneux*) is to be found. He says that between three and four thousand American families, with hungry credulity, have traced their ancestry to those who have occupied thrones somewhere in Europe. It is this writer who attributes to us a unique development of "altruistic vanity" which is "*un produit absolument Américain*." This amiability is illustrated by the generous and free distribution of titles which en-

*One spectator, scoffing at our pretence of equality, says, "The Americans seem to have no notion that Nature went into the business before the Declaration of Independence."

†"Society in America," Vol. I, p. 173.

courage the "ambitions and the good nature of the community." It was Marryat, I think, who met "in the United States chiefly Colonels and Captains who had never been in any army but owed their dignity to the good will of their neighbors." The rebuke of Mr. Bryce is conveyed with such literary skill that one must italicize a part of it. He speaks of our "enthusiasm for anything that can be called genius with an *overreadiness to discover it.*"

Again, one of our primary passions is "to overdo things." If we take on any new habit, like the tipping of waiters and attendants, we are not content to exercise it with the least restraint. It must be carried into all forms of demoralizing excess. An Englishman is taken to one of the more fashionable New York clubs on several occasions. He says that his American hosts in no instance gave less than a dollar tip* "What," he asks, "can you expect of a system that gives as a tip three times as much as my *fare* from the station to my club in London ever costs me?"

Our "pitiless hospitality" is another phase of this "genius for overdoing." That the Yankees are tuft-hunters can be seen in this inability to let any kind of celebrity alone a *minute*. They will drive him to death if they can get some glory out of it. Frederika Bremer has many complaints of this. She writes: "And that is the way they kill strangers in this country. They have no mercy on the poor lion, who must make a show and whisk his tail about as long as there is any life left in him. One must really be downright obstinate and stern, if one would be at peace here. And I feel as if I should become so. It is said that Spurzheim was regularly killed with kindness by the Bostonians."

*This seemed to me extravagant both as a tip and a story. I have, however, verified it. A gentleman frequently at one of these clubs tells me, "I have several times gone there to dine with two fellows whom no one would call rich. I have repeatedly seen a crisp dollar bill given as a tip. I supposed it was the fare, until I found out that the cabs were paid for at the club."

This "impulse to excess," has many dangerous illustrations. "When the passion. has vented itself, interest dies out," as in our "prolific and insane passing of laws." "For every conceivable evil, real or imagined, the Yankee must have a law, but when it is passed, he goes about his business as if nothing more were required." The result being that "nowhere is there such a bewildering mass of unenforced and forgotten laws as in America."

Among civilized folk, we have the least agreeable speaking voice; we have a passion for exaggeration and bigness apart from quality and excellence. This latter shows itself not only externally (as in our advertising and our press methods) but in our tastes and habits of thought.

Perhaps not unconnected with this, is another observation that is often expressed by foreign students about our educational institutions. It is admitted that we have specific schools of the highest rank in administrative efficiency, but that the visiting student is surprised by nothing so much as the larger number that have elaborate up-to-date external equipment and housing with feeble and ineffective teaching. An English educator, after seeing our schools during a five months' trip, says, "There are no better schools in the world than a few I could name, but in many others with imposing and costly plants, the teaching is so poor that your public appears to trust the magnificence of the plant rather than the capacity of the teachers."

To continue our discipline, we have an extraordinary optimism, especially where there seems to be no justification for it; we are also "fatalists," accepting grimly or cheerfully all sorts of defeats when once the issue is decided; we are "the only people to whom hotels and traveling are ends in themselves." This is a part of our surplus (or morbid) energy and love of change, which excites many comments. Our curiosity is very highly developed; we have little "love of locality." We have unusual powers of adaptability to new and sudden emergencies; we are "most intellectually tol-

erant," have "great good nature,"* "unlimited push," "invention," "energy," "versatility," and a widespread "whimsical humor," are of course in the list.

It is very painful to find that other nations do not think us the wittiest folk in the universe, but "a certain generally diffused humor" is readily granted to us. We are known, finally, by one other ugly distinction which gives us easy and sinister precedence among civilized folk of all the world. Side by side with lordly hospitalities for all the embodied enlightenments, we show a mania to foster and support multitudes of imposters. Mr. Muirhead's words were, "the home of the charlatan and the quack." Why, it is asked, should a people so priding itself on its practical good sense open its arms to every religious and medical charlatan on earth? One visitor tries to make a record of all the obvious quacks in a small city of twenty thousand. Palmists, clairvoyants, fortune-tellers, soothsayers, astrologers, innumerable healers, magicians, exorcists, he finds in such numbers that he is sure "the Americans don't know themselves what a pest of vampires and parasites they harbor." More dangerous than this swarm of necromancers, however, is the patent medicine fiend. Here our passion for humbug is exercised at terrible cost. This investigator gives up his task of counting the quacks, but says he now understands why we are "a headachy and dyspeptic people." "It is a nation of nervously disturbed people." A French engineer, four years in the West, thinks the Americans are not to be feared by competing nations because they will lose their prestige and strength through the quack doctor.

De Nevers, also, connects our ill health with "the colossal use of drugs."

One writer thinks the palmists and sorcerers generally are welcomed and maintained as we welcome vaudeville or any source of fun. We get amusement

*Sir Arthur Helps puts these words into the mouth of his lawyer: "I think you cannot help being struck by their good nature, even when they [the Americans] commence blowing their tiresome national trumpet." *Essays on Organization*, p. 208.

enough out of them to justify the expense, but are not really fooled by them. The quack doctor and patent medicine man are not thus accounted for. They are like a "permanent devastating plague." "Why should this most beschooled and newspapered nation in the world freely exhaust itself by fostering this army of leeches?" One gives a long list of advertisements of which the following is an illustration,

"Great Clairvoyant! Mme Stuart; THE SEVENTH DAUGHTER OF THE SEVENTH DAUGHTER, has read cards since 11 years of age,—life revealed, past, present, future,—ladies or gents, 50c."

Here is the full and redoubtable catalogue of our peculiarities, both in terms of weakness and of strength, as gathered from this literary annotation on our institutions and behavior. It is a medley of vigors and incompletenesses, of many offenses and some sturdy excellences.

There are innumerable variations given to these supposed characteristics, but for the most part they analyze into the more general ones here given. Between several of these, as we have seen, any real distinction is difficult to maintain. For example, if there is a "fatalistic" quality in our character, it is not something inherently different and apart from our "indiscriminate optimism," or even from our "general good nature." If we are careless and indifferent about common social wrongs and grievances, this is not distinct from our "tolerance." "Adaptability" is a part of our "love of change." If we have "a passion for bigness," that becomes a general term for other minor shortcomings like our "lack of tact," our "importunate hospitality" and "lack of restraint." Some of these require no comment, as they are merely human and race frailties, not in the least peculiar to our geography. With only a portion, even of the truthful strictures, can we deal. But first: Toward the main charges, what attitude are we to take? Shall we greedily accept the flattering ascriptions, but bristle with testy denial at the unflattering ones? This would too easily justify our critics. Smugly

to take the praise and show affront at the blame, would prove that one damaging criticism is true: that "the American cannot stand criticism," that "unless you coddle him, he sulks and won't play." One writer in 1840, examining our prisons, says, "I found I could not criticize with the slightest freedom. Unless I had plenty of compliments, I could not even get the information I wanted. If I put it all on with a trowel, I could get any question answered." We shall see later what a mass of evidence there is on this point. The only proof that we have outgrown this childishness must be in our present readiness to face the censure as gaily as the approbation.

Another form of that early oversensitiveness is to boast fussily that we don't in the least *care* what foreigners think of us. This would only add stupidity to childishness.

To be intellectually hospitable to these critics is not in the least to admit their infallibility. Much less does it admit that criticisms once true are still true. Some of them that were meant as a stigma or weakness are virtues in the making. "Yankee curiosity" has received much abuse, but it is one of the most hopeful signs of growing intelligence. Several of our more recent visitors express surprise that this prying curiosity of which they had read or heard so much is nowhere to be found except as an exceptional phenomenon. So, too, with the charge of "suspicion." That we are exceptional in this has probably no shred of truth so far as it is meant to stand for a national characteristic. Foreigners far oftener note an extreme openness and frankness of mind which even become objects of criticism. Suspicion is a product of social or class conditions, or it is the merely human expression of timidities and doubts when inexperienced folk are placed in wholly new and unwonted surroundings. One of the critics explains that he never saw this suspicion in Americans in their own country, but observed it only when he saw them in Europe. Even such a count against us as that we are the "happy hunting-ground of all extant quack-

eries," that we "are the only nation of rank that fosters and protects all forms of charlatanism," raises an issue that is not to be dismissed as if it were a final judgment.

There are specific forms of commercialized humbug that are definitely known to be such by the simplest tests and common experience. Against these no scathing can be too severe. But our critics include in their condemnation far more than these. There is the assumption of some existing religious, educational, scientific, moral or political standard, from which any departure is a depravity. Yet much of the world's new truth is constantly breaking in upon us through those that at the time *are called* cranks and imposters. What would become of religion, science, medicine, politics, art and education, social reforms, if in each, the strictly orthodox contingent were allowed to define and dispose of heresies; if to those various orthodoxes were given sole power to decide the activities and the destinies of those groping and experimenting on life's frontier? There is none to whom the race has more cause for gratitude than the long list of those who were the erratic and ostracized of their day. The accusation against the English, that they suffer still because they cannot bear with eccentricity, is as late as John Stuart Mill. Tolerance has its dangers, but a straightened conventionalism has perils greater still.

Again, a French writer complains that we are cold and unresponsive. That is what the Latin race would ascribe to all northern races. De Amicis knew Holland well, and that is his criticism against the Dutch. That all northern peoples are more indifferent to pleasure for its own sake, is true from the Latin point of view.

Still other of these traits are explained by the character of the period of development. They would be as true of other nations when the corresponding stage was reached. Given our facilities for constant travel and they, too, will be "restless" and "incessantly on the go," and apparently have "slight attachment to the home."

"Lack of thoroughness," in the sense meant, was inevitable and even justifiable in the early decades of the last century, when the criticism was oftenest made. Americans have, says one, "an absurd lack of thoroughness." It will be remembered that words like "absurd" and "ridiculous" are usually applied by us to objects and happenings, the real meaning or explanation of which we do not understand. The "absurdity" is properly in our own lack of comprehension.

For example our "flimsy wooden houses" have excited a great deal of emotional rhetoric. They were almost the first objects noted by Dickens. They seemed "to have no root." They looked as if they "could be taken up piecemeal like a child's toy," and crammed into a little box.* Another says they are "as absurd as they are dangerous and wasteful." A stately English scholar said while lecturing here, "Your wooden houses, I can't understand. Why don't you put up something in stone and brick that will be solid at the end of three hundred years, as we do in England?" An American, to whom the question was put, answered, "It is because we don't want that kind of a house. Changes, improvement, new comforts of all sorts come so fast, that we don't want a house to last too long. This house is what I want, but not what my children will want. Even I want to make some structural change every five years. I can now do it without being ruined, as I could not in one of your three century dwellings." "Bless my heart," replied the Englishman, "I never thought of that. You want houses that will easily take on improvements as they come, and be free to build a new and better one every generation, if you want to." I heard the Englishman say later, as he was commenting on the above conversation, "It is really extraordinary how stupid most of us are in not trying to discover why people do things in different ways, before we set up as judges." This bit of obvious wisdom applies

*"American Notes," Vol. I, p. 23.

quite as well to a good many of the "characteristics" which here occupy us.

There are, however, some of these strictures that are not to be explained away or even to be internationalized. Stretch the margin of exceptions widely as we may, the "American voice" in many parts of the country is so sadly deficient in resonance and pleasing quality that no ardor of patriotism can save our pride about it. That the great mass of us do not set ourselves—like the English, for example—stoutly against recognized evils and nuisances of the commoner sort is incontestible. Herbert Spencer saw in this one of our chief weaknesses. It is again and again asked, why should a people of such undoubted vitality and assertion have this failing. Chevalier says, "They eat what is placed before them, without ever allowing themselves to make any remark about it. They stop at the pleasure of the driver and the captain, without showing the least symptom of impatience; they allow themselves to be overturned and their ribs to be broken by the one, without uttering a complaint or a reproach; the discipline is even more complete than in the camp."

A British critic calls this "the little understood stoicism of the Yankee" in contrast to which, he says that "if an Englishman finds his chop slightly burnt, he barks at everybody in sight."

That Americans in the presence of great and impending evils show extraordinary mettle has often enough been said at home and abroad. Even the English found us sufficiently lively as kickers in 1776 and 1812. The sacrifices for an idea North and South in the Civil War mark the first profound change in tone in foreign criticism. John Bright could say, "A nation that can suffer like that for its principles has answered all critics that are capable of understanding ideals." But these are the great events. It is conceded that these stir us to real unselfishness and intrepidity. The criticism concerns those lesser evils and injustices which continue to afflict most communities, and

which Mr. Lowell thought likely to continue because of "the divine patience of my fellow countrymen." The illustrations of this lethargy are troublesome from their very number.

I choose three very simple instances from New England communities that are often spoken of as exceptional, so far as educational opportunity and general well-being are concerned. In the first one, serious political evils had developed during the last twenty years, largely in connection with carelessly bestowed franchises. From this root came treacherous politics and slovenliness in the care of the city streets and sanitation. After some ten years of this, I heard the following comment from the one citizen who, by common consent, was foremost in public spirit. He said, "No effort than we can make seems really to move the mass of our best citizens at all. Some of them will come to a meeting and talk manfully, but when it comes to giving their time and continuous work, even one evening in the week, they fall down. The college graduates as a class, and men from whom you would expect most, are about as good as so many dead men. They usually say they are too busy, but I find a large part of them using up four or five times as many hours as this public service would require, at golf, at their clubs, or at the card table. Enough men play poker every day from four o'clock to dinner, to set these things right in six months."

The second instance is a much beschooled community in which harassing juvenile misdemeanors, among other things, have long been such a plague as to excite much discussion. The Captain of Police, who had special experience with these offenders, said in my hearing, "You needn't blame the kids, the trouble is in the public, but especially in the educated and well-to-do people. There are just two in this town who have sand enough to take any real trouble after they make complaint. Those two will go to court and see it through, but the rest of the citizens just grumble, but can't be made to do anything about it."

When these facts were brought out at a public meeting in the third town, a sociological professor made the reply, "We thought all the time you were talking about us. Several of our citizens have given up raising fruit and flowers, because there seems to be no way in which stealing and destruction can be prevented. One of my acquaintances cut down his fruit trees, although he never would take the trouble to appear in court against the offender even when the petty thief had been caught. He gave it as a reason that he always imagined a distracted mother would appear and make such a fuss for her boy that he couldn't stand it." This professor enriched the discussion by adding that the reason why our domestic service is so bad is that almost all mistresses are too cowardly to tell the truth. When the servant leaves, and the mistress gives a "recommendation," she tells the most atrocious fibs about the girl's real faults, and then excuses herself on the ground that she "really can't hurt the girl's prospects." This coincides with one of Mrs. Bacon's conclusions about the servant question, that little is to be hoped for "Until women can offer honesty in their written references, and supply full details to written questions they have no right to complain of bad service from bureaus or employes."*

It is of this hesitation to face unpleasant facts rather than to be disagreeable and pugnacious about them, after the genius of our English cousins, that calls out the criticism. James Muirhead says, "Americans invented the slang word 'kicker,' but so far as I could see their vocabulary is here miles ahead of their practice; they dream noble deeds but do not do them; Englishmen 'kick' much better, without having a name for it."† I have never found an American who denied this criticism after he had fairly considered it. One remembers little spurts of protest now and then. Indignant letters are sent to the press to complain of late trains, crowded trollies or soft

**American Magazine*, February, 1907, p. 360.

†"The Land of Contrasts," p. 801.

coal smoke. Yet the difference between our general acquiescence, and the English habit of quick and lusty resistance to minor evils, has no exaggeration in Herbert Spencer's comment. A humorous illustration of the English habit is shown me by Mr. Muirhead in the English "Who's Who" for 1904. Mr. Ashton gives as one of his recreations, writing letters to the press on various subjects; of these over 550 call attention to neglect of graves of noteworthy people.

In one of our smaller cities, the overchoked condition of the street cars called out a protest in the press. The local trolley magnate was incensed by this lack of consideration on the part of the public. He said the company couldn't do any better, adding "The seats only pay our expenses: *the straps give us our dividends.*" As long as we submit to rank affronts of that character, we deserve what we get.

For the degree of truth there is in the criticism, what reasons can be given? Is it a part of our "miscellaneous good nature" or of our "fatalism?" Is it that our "gift of tolerance," which Klein notes, includes things evil as well as good? The extemporized reason is usually that we are "too busy with our own affairs." I have even heard it said that we have too much "humor" to be fussy about ordinary evils. A sociological teacher in one of our colleges states it thus, "The truth is, our individual relation to the whole pest of lesser injustices and evils is so slight and so indirect, that anything an individual can do strikes him as ridiculous. I am asked, for instance, to join the protestants against "city noises." They are an infernal nuisance, but when I think of any conceivable thing I can do to check the nuisance, the incongruity makes me smile." That we do not like to make ourselves conspicuous or disagreeable accounts, I think, for more of this easy acquiescence than surplus of humor.

It is not unlikely that one deeper reason why the English are blunt and abrupt about their rights, is because class

lines are so much more sharply drawn there. Within these limits, one is likely to develop the habit of demanding his dues. He insists upon his prerogatives all the more because they are more narrowly defined. When an English writer* says, "We are not nearly so much afraid of one another in England as you are in the States," he expresses this truth. In a democracy every one at least hopes to get on and up. This ascent depends not upon the favor of a class, but upon the good will of the whole. This social whole has to be conciliated. It must be conciliated in both directions—at the top and at the bottom. To make oneself conspicuous and disagreeable, is to arouse enmities and block one's way.

This is in part what de Tocqueville means in one of his few severities, "I know of no country in which there is so little independence of mind and real freedom of discussion as in America." Professor Münsterberg evidently thinks Germany has more "inner freedom," and even adds, "if I consider the outer forms of life, I do not hesitate to maintain that Germany is even in that respect freer than the United States."† An honored citizen of Maine has given it as the worst feature of their constitutional prohibition, that "it paralyzes the intellectual independence of our politicians." He named three men prominent as statesmen. "I know personally that every one of them heartily disbelieves in that liquor legislation, but they will not imperil their careers by saying so in public." That this "saving subserviency" will be found in every nation of the world is, of course, true. That it is more necessarily prevalent in a large and loose democracy is what these criticisms imply.

As other of these imputed characteristics are to have further consideration under topics which they serve to illustrate, the next chapter will be devoted to a peculiarity that is a kind of tap root from which others spring, namely, the extreme sensitiveness of the American people under criticism.

*Jowett; Book VIII., p. 588.

†"American Traits," p. 33.

VI. American Sensitiveness

ONE of our critics reports that he meant to make a third trip to the United States, but that he suffered so much from the perpetual inquiry, "How do you like America?" "How do you like our city or town?" that he concluded to stay at home.

The fame of Frederika Bremer gave her universal welcome among us in the middle of the last century. Her two volumes* are full of appreciation, but she is "vexed to distraction" by insistent personal questioning, of which this is one example:

"At the hotel at Buffalo I was again tormented by some new acquaintance with the old, tiresome questions, 'How do you like America?' 'How do you like the States?' 'Does Buffalo look according to your expectations?' To which latter question I replied that I had not expected anything from Buffalo."†

This plague of questioning assumed many forms and became a sore trial to her. She thought as she went South she might be free from it. But there, too, it haunted her.

"You are asked, for example,

"'Will you have butter?'

"'Yes, I thank you.'

"'Will you take fish or meat? chicken or turkey?'

"'Chicken, if you please.'

"'Have you any choice? The breast or a wing?'

"Then comes, 'Will you have pickles?'

"'No, I thank you.'

"A pause and calm ensues for two minutes. But then somebody to your left discovers that you have no pickles, and pickles come to you from the left. 'May I help you to pickles?'

"'No, I thank you?'

"After a few minutes more somebody on the right sees that you have no pickles, and hastens to offer you the bottle. 'Will you not take pickles?'

"You then begin an interesting conversation with your next neighbor; and, just as you are about to ask some question of importance, a person opposite you observes that you are not eating pickles, and the pickle-bottle comes to you across the table."

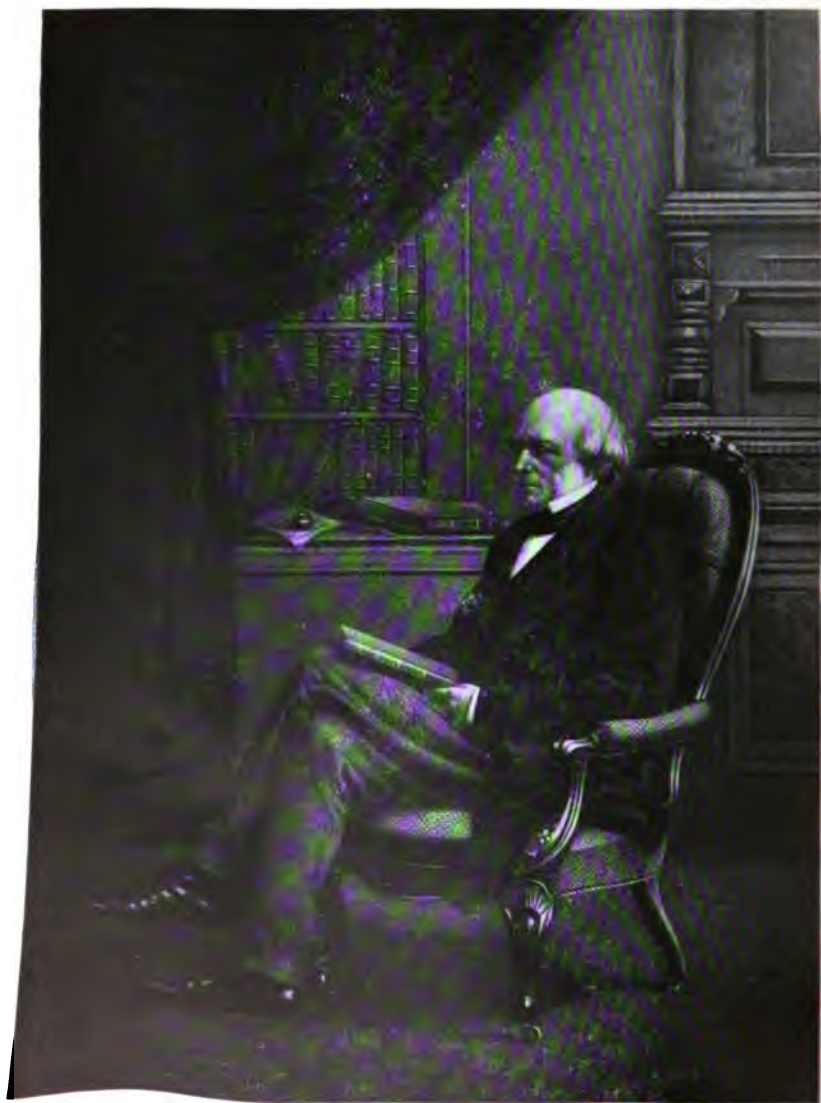
*"Homes of the New World;" two volumes, Harpers, 1853.

†"Homes of the New World;" Vol. I, p. 596.

‡"Homes of the New World," Vol. I, p. 334.



Captain Marryat
English Novelist and Critic of American Institutions.



Sir Charles Lyell
English Scientist and Traveler in America.



Volney, French Antiquarian
Author of a Geographical Work upon the United States.



William Makepeace Thackeray
English Novelist, Author of "The Virginians."



Charles Dickens
English Novelist Who Twice Visited the United States.



Prof. John Tyndall
English Physicist and Traveler
in the United States.



Thomas Huxley
English Scientist and Critic of
America.



Richard Cobden
English Statesman and Critic
of America.



Chateaubriand
French Author and Early Vis-
itor to America.

If we are to believe several other visiting celebrities, the question, "How do you like us?" begins before landing, never fails at the dock, and continues until the poor victim is under shelter in his native land. If the traveler has a turn for philosophizing, he is sure to ask why the American has this itching desire to know what every foreigner thinks about his town or country. One maintains that "familiarity with half the world" never elicited this inquiry in any other country. An American who had spent much of his life in Europe told me he never remembered once being asked, "How do you like Italy, or England, or Germany?" Bryce says in his Introduction, "In England one does not inquire from foreigners, nor even from Americans, their views on the English laws and government; nor does the Englishman on the Continent find Frenchmen or Germans or Italians anxious to have his judgment on their politics." B. F. Stevens* thinks that while personally we are "entirely free from self consciousness," our *national* self consciousness is extreme in its development. We are "uneasy unless we know what the observer is thinking." Buckminster notes in 1838† that "the first citizen of Pennsylvania, Nicholas Biddle," in an address delivered at Princeton College, used these words: "When some unhappy traveler ventures to smile at follies which we do not see or dare not acknowledge, instead of disregarding it or being amused by it, we resent it as an indignity to our sovereign perfections." This differs little from Mrs. Trollope.

"If I say to an American that the country he lives in is a fine one, 'Ay,' he replies, 'there is not its equal in the world.' If I applaud the freedom which its inhabitants enjoy, he answers, 'Freedom is a fine thing, but few nations are worthy to enjoy it.' If I remark the purity of morals which distinguishes the United States, 'I can imagine,' he says, 'that a stranger who has witnessed the corruption that prevails in other nations, should be astonished at the difference.' At length, I leave him to the contemplation of himself; but he returns to the charge, and does not desist till he has got me to repeat all I have just been saying. It is impossible

*"Land of the Dollar," p. 315.

†"Travels in America," Vol. II, p. 45.

to conceive a more troublesome or more garrulous patriotism; it wearies even those who are disposed to respect it.”*

Alfred Bunn, an English lecturer, writes:†

“Such an unhappily sensitive community surely never existed in the world; and the vengeance with which they visit people for saying they don’t admire or like them, would be really terrible if the said people were but as mortally afraid of abuse as they seemed to be. I would not advise either Mrs. Trollope, Basil Hall, or Capt. Hamilton, ever to set their feet upon this ground again, unless they are ambitious of being stoned to death.”

M. de Tocqueville says:‡

“Nothing is more embarrassing, in the ordinary intercourse of life, than this irritable patriotism of the Americans. A stranger may be well inclined to praise many of the institutions of their country, but he begs permission to blame some things in it,—a permission which is inexorably refused.”

It is a different phase of this same feeling to which Mr. Howells refers when he asks why it is that we Americans insist, when abroad, in being appreciated “in the lump?” Why must the poor alien show a fondness for the whole nation? This is a form of sublimated patriotism which we do not practise at home. We do not ourselves like Americans “in a lump.” After our tastes and sympathies, we have affections and likings for individuals. We do not dote on the totals in the census.

A lecturer, recently here from Cambridge, England, said of this characteristic, “We Englishmen don’t care a rap whether England is liked or disliked as a nation. We like some human beings here and there. Some Americans quite win our hearts, just as some Englishmen do. But I won’t love the whole of America any more than I love the whole pack of my own countrymen.” This is clearly what we all act upon in our ordinary relations. In spite of “Triple” or any other alliances, no nation loves another nation, no race loves another race. Can we even say that

*Vol. II, p. 275.

†“Old England and New England,” 1853; pp. 190-1.

‡“Democracy in America,” p. 311.

the South loves the North, or the North the South? Does the East love the West, or the West the East? Does Chicago love St. Louis, Cleveland grow foolish over Cincinnati? Why, then, should America be so supersensitive on this point? Why should Paul Bourget still have to put it into his French text that we are so "touchy"—au plus haut degré, "touchy?"*

Though the French and Germans note this trait, such natural history of our sensitiveness as can be traced, has far more to do with our Mother Country than with that of any other or all others. In spite of vehement denial, we *cared* about English opinion. The historical relation with England, which covers the origin and close of two wars (1776 and 1812), did not wholly create this touchiness, but it helps much to explain it. It is altogether impossible at this date to reproduce the enduring bitterness toward England which her attitude in these conflicts produced upon the American people. Almost more than the wars themselves, was the prevailing tone of her official dealing with us, as well as the more general criticism seen in the last chapter. De Tocqueville, a quarter of a century after the War of 1812, says that it is incredible to what length this hatred of England went. It is to the popular reading habit that we must first look. Dickens finds every American with his heels in the air and a newspaper in his hands. What sort of message did these readers find reprinted for them from the last batch of English papers? It was oftener than not coarse abuse of this country. Or it was a half insolent ignoring of every national aspiration, and this was more galling still. It is a loyal Englishman who speaks of his own country in these words:†

*"Outre-Mer," Vol. I, p. 68.

†"The Land of Contrasts," p. 801.

"England has her fixed position in the family of nations. We care not therefore what the foreigner thinks or says of us. The English may look or express contempt as he walks their streets. The foreigner cannot exalt or debase the English as a people." These are words of a recent English journalist.

"But it is just his calm, supercilious Philistinism, aggravated no doubt by his many years' experience as a ruler of submissive Orientals, that makes it no less a pleasure than a duty for a free and intelligent republican to resent and defy his criticism."

Until the forties, English opinion had been chiefly formed by books like those of Basil Hall, Hamilton, Dickens, and Mrs. Trollope. Books, still more recklessly hostile, like those of Parkinson and Smyth, were widely read by their countrymen. For years it was honestly believed in this country that vilifiers were hired by the British Ministers to discredit the United States. It was, of course, not true, but that it could have general belief indicates the state of feeling. It was also among our honest beliefs, that many of these critics were here to gather discouraging evidence that might prevent English laborers from coming to this country. This angered a certain class of employers who wanted cheap labor. That it was the adopted English policy to empty her poor-houses, orphan and insane asylums of their inmates and ship them to our shores was also the commonest belief, and a belief that had plenty of apparently good evidence to sustain it. Indignant public meetings were held, with many investigations and lurid reports.

A fair sample of these reports was sent to the General Assembly in Baltimore (1831) by the mayor and city council. The report contained these words: "Of one thousand one hundred and sixty persons admitted to the almshouse in that city in 1831, four hundred and eighty-seven were foreigners; and of this number two hundred and eighty-one had been in the country less than six months prior to their admission, and one hundred and twenty-one less than one week."

To recount these various sources of antipathy, jealousy and misunderstanding explains much of our excessive self consciousness under English criticism. I have heard the story of a sturdy minded farmer on Cape Cod, whose boy brought word from school that an English grammar must be purchased. The old man, who lived through the period of 1812, shouted, "An English grammar! I wouldn't have

the thing in the house. You will buy an American grammar!" January 17, 1808, in a despatch to Canning, the English Minister in this country, mentioned that Congress contained one tailor, one weaver, six or seven tavern-keepers, four notorious swindlers, one butcher, one grazier, one curer of hams and several schoolmasters and Baptist preachers. The tone of this was understood to be one of ill-concealed contempt. We have only to imagine amiabilities like this, copied in half the press of the United States, to understand what lively response would follow.

Into the American press came a steady stream of such quotations from English opinions. They were patronizing, contemptuous or insulting, according to the humor of the writer. For more than a generation this was the food on which the American reader fed; de Tocqueville's word "incredible," as applied to these angers, is none too strong.

It is into this atmosphere that the English critic came. Nor is there much change until the nineteenth century is half spent. It was an atmosphere that heightened every one of our faults. It quite accounts for our early "suspicion." It throws a good deal of light on our bragging habits. The English traveler then seemed to us the embodied denial of every democratic ideal that we cherished. To assert ourselves against this chilling influence was too human to be avoided. In June, 1837, Jared Sparks wrote de Tocqueville that he was "vexed and mortified that an edition of your *Démocratie* has not yet been published in America." Our newspapers had begun to copy extracts from English reviews which naturally emphasized de Tocqueville's more critical remarks. Mild as these were, they were enough to create an instant prejudice against the book in the United States.

That a good deal of this criticism was true, did not sweeten it to the taste. We had boldly and very conspicuously set up imposing ideals of political and social equality. Without the least restraint, we had raised these ideals before the world and made them the object of lofty and con-

tinuous declamation. It was therefore very rasping to have the ideals challenged. A yet sharper sting was in the frequent inquiry, "If you have a land of equality before the law, why do you continue slavery?" To the Northerner this passed endurance, and he usually makes a very poor figure in his attempts to show that slavery doesn't really conflict with these sacred phrases about liberty. One enraged Yankee replies that only a blockhead could see any inconsistency between slavery and liberty and "besides, it's only down South anyhow." An Englishman walking with his American host in New York, in 1825, sees the announcement of a dance on a placard bearing the words, "No colored people admitted." The guest says he remarked innocently, "It's pretty hard to practice equality, isn't it?" Whereupon his entertainer lost temper and said, "The Europeans are so spoiled by flunkeyism that they can't understand liberty when they see it."

Our treatment of the Indians also gave rise to many tart passages, as did our rancor and inhumanity against the Catholics which culminated in the burning of the nunnery in Charlestown.

There were indeed at most periods when our visitors were present, some troublesome illustrations that seemed to give the lie to our fine speaking and writing. That Harriet Martineau, for instance, should come into Boston on the very day when Garrison was being dragged through the streets was awkward enough. She had given great attention before her coming to our political history and development. What interested her from the first was the "*Theory and Practice*" in our life and institutions. Here was her first rude shock. In this "land of the free" was liberty of speech so brutally denied? If men were thus assaulted, was there no law? It was an eminent college president who tried to soothe her in her disappointment. He insisted that "it was all right,—*the mob having been entirely composed of gentlemen.*"* Lawyers tell her that

*Autobiography, Vol. II, p. 24.

nothing can be done about it. "Ladies were sure that the gentlemen of Boston would do nothing improper." "Merchants thought the abolitionists were served quite right." "What would become of trade if such agitators were allowed to anger the South?" "Clergymen excuse themselves because the whole subject is so 'low.'" She writes further, "And even Judge Story, when I asked him whether there was not a public prosecutor who might prosecute for the assault on Garrison, if the abolitionists did not, replied that he had given his advice (which had been formally asked) against any notice whatever being taken of the outrage,—the feeling being so strong against the discussion of slavery and the rioters being so respectable in the city."

Here was the rough awakening to this noble woman. As one sees in Mrs. Chapman's Memoirs, Miss Martineau was capable of commanding moral courage.* She had every hospitality that Boston and Cambridge could offer, but she did not flinch from criticizing these open affronts upon liberty, law, and order. That the highest social and educational respectability should lead in these attacks added gall to her pen. Her plain speaking stung Boston to the quick. It at once became the habit to belittle her book and abuse her personally. When Captain Marryat came, he found her referred to as "that deaf old woman with the trumpet." He was assured that "her volumes were full of blunders; that her entertainers really had great fun in telling her big stories which were solemnly written down." One eminent individual brings Miss Martineau's book to Marryat, who says that he was "excessively delighted when he pointed out to me two pages of fallacies, which he had told her with a grave face and which she had duly recorded and printed."†

It was in this spirit that the injured self-love of the community took its revenge. It was very human, but rather petty and ignoble. There are errors in Miss Martineau's book and occasional dogmatism. But at that time not two

*Autobiography, vol. II, p. 30.

†"Diary in America," 1839, p. 9.

books had been written on the United States so full of truth, so enriched by careful observation and stated with more sobriety.*

I enlarge upon this special experience because it faithfully represents that of many other visitors. We had called so much attention to our political and social principles; had so emphasized their superiorities and, at the same time, had taken such mocking liberties with the corresponding ideals among our effete neighbors in Europe, that we laid ourselves bare to every shaft of the enemy. Were we actually realizing these ideals of liberty, justice and equality with a success that justified our tone? Were our manners, morals, and social virtues, as set forth by the "cannon oratory" of July Fourth, or by the politicians asking for votes, quite up to the representations? We had ourselves some searching doubts on this point. No one probably knew better than we that there was a great deal of buncombe in these pretensions. It was this uneasy consciousness of the gap between our proclaimed ideals and our observed social and political practises that created and maintained a great part of our "supersensitiveness" as a people. This condition was also a kind of hot-house in which our spirit of boasting reached its luxuriant growths. Both the sensitiveness and the bragging have diminished, partly at least, because we have been disciplined into a little humility. With many triumphs, have come some sobering defeats. We have learned to look at our whole community life with fewer illusions. The Civil War, with its long aftermath of paralyzing difficulties, was the first awakening. That event, with the unavoidable blundering that followed far into the seventies, taught us the delicate complexity of our political traditions;—taught

*That a college with religious traditions like those of Wellesley should honor itself, as it honors Miss Martineau, by giving her statue so conspicuous a place in that institution, is the happiest sign of enlarging intellectual life. There are those living who remember her well and the obloquy that was heaped upon her. She was an object of "moral vituperation." She was "a coarse infidel" and even a "hardened atheist." She was a "trifler with truth and all sacred things" who "could not even write a single page without several misstatements."

us slowly that conflicting views on the most fundamental issues, could be honestly held and that multitudes would die as bravely as ever men died to maintain those views. From the hard experience of that quarter of a century, both North and South learned immeasurably through the *un*-learning of prejudices. The South had to learn the meaning of nationality. It had to learn all that is meant by a reorganized industrial life with its necessary readjustments to the country as a whole. The North had surely no less to learn and to unlearn. Tardily she came to recognize that the struggle in the Southland was not' solely to save slave property. That quite apart from this, there was an idealism which all fair men now honor and history will respect. After the war, the North had to learn within what narrow limits force is a remedy, just as she had to learn that the South must be governed by what is best in the South, and as for all that is implied in the "negro question," the North had to learn its main lesson as a child has to learn its alphabet. The intellectual and moral adjustment to the whole legacy of war problems has steadied and disciplined us as a nation.

Not wholly separated from the teaching of this inheritance is the educational effect upon us of difficulties that seem inherent between the Federal Government and the several States. It is not alone the murdered Italians in New Orleans and the confessed helplessness of the Government to enforce justice or the reverberations from California over the Japanese in public schools; it is a whole nest of practical industrial and social problems that are seen to be grave because of our political structure. Sobering, too, are our immigration and Philippine problems with all that we are coming to associate with those heavy responsibilities.

These collective experiences have done much to show most thoughtful Americans that our deeper problems are not solved solely because of our form of government. Neither universal suffrage nor popular education has worked

half the wonders that were expected of them. Better still, are we learning how futile a thing is the mere legislative act, unless the will of a dedicated citizenship lives in the enactment. In not one of these ideals has the light of our faith gone out, but a certain levity and briskness in our optimism has been subdued. It is no longer a fatality that works independent of our own acts.

We were reproved some years ago by a French guest for lacking "objectivity." In this academic dialect, he wished to inform us that we were sentimental about ourselves; too self-centered and without much capacity to see and criticize ourselves, as other people see us and criticize us. This, too, was doubtless true, but it is surely a little less true in the later years.

It is not a generation since Matthew Arnold wrote of the "American rhapsody of self praise." In the "elevated," the "beautiful," and the "interesting," he found our civilization in the United States lacking. He thought this lack unavoidable and natural, but saw it as an evil sign that we were, moreover, sensitive and petulant when so obvious a truth about us was set down by the foreigner.

He said if we would only be frank about these shortcomings, and acknowledge that the rule of "the average man is a danger," no fair observer would find fault. "Even if a number of leading lights amongst them said," he continues, "under the circumstances our civilization could not well have been expected to begin differently. What you see are *beginnings*: they are crude, they are too predominantly material, they omit much, leave much to be desired—but they could not have been otherwise. They have been inevitable, and we will rise above them; if the Americans frankly said this, one would not have a word to bring against them."*

The test which this passage submits, we may accept

*"Civilization in the United States," pp. 9, 182.

without the slightest misgiving. The rare distinctions of beauty, elevation, and the "interesting were lacking" in our civilization. They are still unachieved, but many more than "some leading spirits" know this limitation and acknowledge it. The last quarter of a century has produced a literature of self criticism and self accusation that fully meets Arnold's test. Bryce's first visit was a few years after the war. He was here again in 1883. He says that between those dates the oversensitiveness "had sensibly diminished." In 1905 he could say more strongly still that the early bounds to our optimism have become "very different from self-righteousness or vainglory."





The Years of Preliminary Growth*

By Edwina Spencer

Author of "American Sculptors."

WHEN the nineteenth century dawned, our country was no longer the colonial dependency of a European power, but had become an independent nation. We had ceased to regard England as "home;" and the men of the new generation were citizens of the United States, born since that joyful morning when Philadelphia echoed to the watchman's lusty cry, "Past three o'clock and Cornwallis taken!"

Politically, socially, and economically, the half century from 1800 to 1850, with which we are now concerned, was a period of transition. The nation was beginning to "find itself,"—was entering upon a new phase of life, blazing new paths, developing a new order. Inevitably, therefore, art was in transition, too, gradually adapting itself to changed conditions. The struggles, aspirations, and determined efforts of these fifty years, laid the foundation for the splendid achievements of recent times; they were years of growth, which bore a worthy part in the slow flowering of a national art.

In 1800, however, at the opening of the period, the outlook was deeply discouraging. The young Republic had yet to prove the reality of her independence, the stability of her

*Miss Spencer's series will run throughout the reading year (September-May). The articles heretofore printed are: "Foreword," and "Painting in the Colonies" (September); "The Period of the Revolution" (October).

government, and the practicality of her democratic principles. Innumerable problems absorbed her, and she had not attempted to act even as a stepmother to the arts. There was no official assistance, and but slight sympathy from the general public; there were no art schools, clubs, or societies; no galleries, no exhibitions, and no great pictures to study.* Indeed, the small Gallician emigrant who, when questioned the other day by the school authorities, explained, "I haf no fader. I haf no moder. I am born off my grandmother!" was in a less serious plight than were the "infant arts" of America in 1800, which not only lacked fostering care at home, but were soon to lose the encouragement of England with the passing of Copley and West.

Sculpture in any serious sense, had not even been attempted here, though hints of its possible advent had been given by the work of a Philadelphian wood-carver and of a New Jersey woman who modelled in wax; Horatio Greenough and Hiram Powers were not born until 1805. The colonists, however, had appreciated the portrait painter as we do the photographer; and the increasing demand for portraiture, with the lack of competition which resulted from the comparatively small number of limners in the field, had, up to this time, largely offset the deplorable absence of artistic instruction, facilities, and stimulus, in the estimation of our painters, as well as of those who were attracted here from abroad. When West wrote urging him to come to England, Copley replied that his brush was in such demand in Boston as to bring him as large an income as if he "were a Raphael or a Correggio," and that his three hundred guineas a year were equal to nine hundred in London. Yet

*There was a small collection of portraits at Harvard College. In Boston, Pine's Museum and the Columbian Museum had added to their exhibits of wax figures and the like a few fairly good pictures. In Hartford, a retired minister had just opened a "Museum of Curiosities," containing some attempts at painting; and in Philadelphia, through Peale's efforts, the "Columbianum" had held, in 1795, the first public art exhibition in this country (with little success). All these were, of course, only accessible to the public by the payment of an admission fee.

every other condition was unfavorable to artistic progress; art had to struggle valiantly for a part in the national development,—but like “the strong man and the waterfall” it was destined to channel a path for itself.

When the century opened, all the more important painters who linked it with colonial and revolutionary traditions were living. Though on the eve of a decline in popularity, Copley and West were still busy in London. Matthew Pratt, some years older than they, remained in Philadelphia, where C. W. Peale was as active a force as ever in the budding art-life of the city. Trumbull, after years of painting and of diplomatic service abroad, was soon to return to America; while Stuart, the greatest of them all, was still in his prime and destined to maintain his supremacy for another twenty-five years. Meantime, a generation of younger men, born during the Revolution, was coming up,—some were at work here, but more studying in England, the last group of students to have the benefit of West’s advice and instruction.

One of these men, whose brief life binds the two centuries together, is the brilliant and pathetic young genius, Edward Greene Malbone (1777-1807). Born at Newport, his boyish dreams were colored by the spell of the quaint town’s unforgettable environment, and its artistic memories; the painter-spirit of Smybert, Feke, Stuart, and the others who had wrought there before him seemed to descend upon the lad in a passion for beauty as intense as that of the old Italian masters. Devoting himself to miniature painting, he worked for some time in Boston, and in 1801 made a few months’ visit to England. West urged him strongly to stay, but he returned, and spent his last years in Charleston, S. C., where he was greatly beloved. He painted with an untiring eagerness that seemed almost prevision, and before his death at thirty had produced work of such strength and beauty that it has remained unsurpassed for a hundred years.

Malbone's early death (occurring just a hundred years ago last May) was a serious loss to our art. In an age of many miniaturists, his brush achieved an exquisite distinction of its own; he brought to these tiny portraits a breadth of conception, sound technical methods, and power to seize the sitter's individuality rarely found. His personal charm, too, seems to have been as compelling as that of his work. Had his musical and poetic gifts, his radiant delight in beauty, his enthusiasm and his high artistic ideals, been spared throughout this period, they would have been a potent force in the advancement of painting. His masterpiece,* "The Hours," done during the London visit, is most inadequately presented in our reproduction which cannot render the lovely coloring of the original. Among his best works, scattered widely in private hands, the miniature of Rebecca Gratz derives special interest from the fact that the personality of this young Philadelphia girl suggested to Sir Walter Scott his famous "Rebecca the Jewess,"† in *Ivanhoe*. Among the other miniaturists of the period, were Benjamin Trott, Robert Field, Birch, Wood, Tisdale, and some of the second generation of Peales, while many portrait painters made excursions into the field, as Copley, West, Trumbull, and Peale had done, for miniatures had long formed an important branch of portraiture. Though none of their work equaled Malbone's perhaps the best was that of his friend, Charles Fraser, of Charleston, who entered the bar during the year of Malbone's death, and did not feel justified in devoting himself to the art he loved

*It represents the three phases of life—past, present and future, —gliding swiftly by in the guise of "rosy hours." The Past, turning wistfully aside, makes way for the regal Present, over whose shoulder the Future looks with a smile of promise.

†Miss Gratz was the closest friend of Washington Irving's betrothed, and was with her when she died. When Irving visited Scott at Abbotsford, he described the young Jewess's beauty and fine nature, which so kindled Sir Walter's imagination that one of his best loved characters resulted. Miss Gratz never married; she lived to be eighty-eight, and was so active in good works that scarcely a charity in Philadelphia does not owe something to her exertions.

until eleven years later. He painted until his death in 1860, yet throughout the forty years lamented the time he had "sacrificed to the law."

When Malbone died, in 1807, the group of men studying abroad had not begun to return. Stuart was painting in Boston, and Peale in Philadelphia; while some of the young artists were already doing excellent work here,—notably Jarvis in New York and Sully in Philadelphia. These two men, though as opposite in character as the poles, were both born in England, only three years apart, and brought to America when very young. John Wesley Jarvis* was not only one of the best portrait painters of his day, but as conspicuous a figure as Whistler has been in recent times. Eccentric, and more than half poseur, his dress, his wit, his mannerisms, gave rise to innumerable anecdotes; but when the cholera scourged New York, he revealed another side of his character by his fearless response to the physicians' desire for drawings of morbid anatomy, and his conscientious work at the hospitals in the interest of medical science. He spent many winters in the South, where much of his painting remains. A wit and a brilliant story-teller, he was welcomed everywhere, and many of his clever dinner-table improvisations were dramatized for the early American stage.

Thomas Sully, in his work as well as his character, differed widely from Jarvis. A gentle, unassuming, unselfish nature, he nobly fulfilled all the obligations of a long life; and expressed the poetry that was in him through a host of portraits and other canvasses, distinguished for their grace and refinement. That his parents were actors may account for the sympathy with which he portrayed such celebrated members of that profession, as Mrs. Wood,

*Jarvis was a nephew of the great John Wesley, with whom he lived until he was five years old. Being then sent to his father, who was a sailor, the boy grew up unguided; has artistic and social gifts, which won him many friends, were also his undoing, and his misdirected energies, proving his bane, resulted in a life almost of vagabondage.



Rebecca Gratz, by Edward Greene
Malbone



The Boy with the Torn Hat, by Thomas Sully. In the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.



The Hours, by Edward Greene Malbone. In the Providence Athenæum.



Portrait of Macready, by Henry Inman. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.



Portrait of Mr. John Finley, by Rembrandt Peale. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.



Frances Anne Kemble, Portrait Painted in 1832 by Thomas Sully.
In the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.



A Spanish Girl, by Washington Allston. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.



Portrait of Washington Allston when Young, Painted by Himself.
In the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.



Portrait of John Grimes, by Matthew Jouett. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.



Niagara Falls, by F. E. Church. In the Corcoran Gallery of Art, Washington, D. C.



Landscape by John Frederick Kensett. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.



On the Hudson, by Thomas Doughty. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.



Trout Brook in the Catskills, by W. Whitredge. In the Corcoran Gallery of Art, Washington, D. C.



The Long Story, by William S. Mount. In the Corcoran Gallery of Art, Washington, D. C.



A Roman Aqueduct, by Thomas Cole. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.



Thomas Sully, Portrait Painted by Himself. In the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

Cooke, and the Kembles; while his portrait of Queen Victoria, now in the Pennsylvania Academy, is a typical example of his skill in handling a difficult subject. Commissioned by the Saint George's Society of Philadelphia, he painted the young Queen from life, at Buckingham Palace, when he visited London in 1838. For half a century Sully was one of our most important painters, and an honored figure in the City of Brotherly Love.

Born in the same year with Sully (1783), and equally important in his own section of the country, was Matthew Harris Jouett, of Kentucky. Until his death at forty-four, in the height of his power, Jouett was considered the best painter "west of the mountains;" he had many distinguished sitters, and during his short professional life produced more than three hundred portraits. After serving in the War of 1812, he settled in Lexington,—a year or two later spending six months in Boston studying with Stuart, with whom he became an especial favorite. His work is so fine that it is a pity there are not more examples in the public collections, by which it might become better known to his countrymen at large. John Grimes, whose portrait is given here, was a pupil and protégé of Jouett's who painted for a time in Nashville, and died in young manhood.

Early in the century, the men who had been studying and traveling in Europe began to return. In 1809 Rembrandt Peale came from France, and he was followed by Vanderlyn, Trumbull, Morse, and Fulton, the inventors, (whose activity in art antedated their devotion to science), Dunlap, who wrote the annals of the period, and Washington Allston, who, after Stuart's death, was our most famous name both here and abroad.

Rembrandt Peale was one of a large family, to whom their father, C. W. Peale, gave such prophetic names as Angelica Kauffman, Rembrandt, Rubens, Titian, and Raphael! Though the little Peales bore up under this visitation, and strove manfully to live up to all that it implied, Rembrandt was the only one who achieved any artistic note.

He was energetic and versatile, like his father, in whose footsteps he followed, even to his efforts to link his fame with that of Washington. As a boy, he had been permitted to paint the hero from life, and many years afterward made a composite portrait which he believed to combine all the excellences of the elder Peale's and his own.* Congress purchased it in 1832. Not long after his return from abroad, he established in Baltimore a museum and gallery like his father's in Philadelphia; and was active in art until his death in 1860,—having been for many years the only surviving painter who had seen Washington.

The career of John Vanderlyn, a man of infinitely greater talent, is a contrast to Peale's in its story of misfortune and thwarted hopes. Vanderlyn was the first of our artists to go to Paris, instead of London, for his training; the accurate drawing and firm modelling he learned there made him one of the best technicians of his day. Early in his life he painted two markedly fine pictures,—one a strong conception of the Roman general, Marius, sitting dejected among the ruins of Carthage, the other his beautiful "Ariadne" in the Pennsylvania Academy, our earliest successful study of the nude.

The "Marius" when shown at the French Salon of 1808 was chosen by Napoleon to receive the gold medal. Fortune seemed to promise much; but from his return to America in 1815, misfortune dogged the painter. His panorama in New York failed; he was at odds with Trumbull over the pictures for the Capitol; sensitive, proud, perhaps erratic, and a very slow worker, he fell into poverty and then into direst want. Dying at his birthplace, Kingston, N. Y., under most pitiful circumstances, he is buried in Wiltwyck Cemetery. A last blow of fate was the destruc-

*The government bought this portrait as an especially accurate portrayal of the first President,—vouched for by a certificate which Peale induced many people of weight to sign. Though signing it, through a dislike to injure the painter's prospects, members of Washington's family, and a number of his old friends, afterward said that it was not a good likeness, and did not satisfy them as a portrait.

tion by fire of his autobiography, which would have been both his memorial and a valuable record for the student of American art.*

Many of his countrymen to whom S. F. B. Morse's name means the invention of the telegraph do not know that for years he was devoted to art, and throughout his life gave freely of his time, sympathy and means to the furtherance of our struggling art interests. While a student in London, he modelled a statue of the "Dying Hercules" which won a gold medal, but afterward confined himself to painting. Returning to America in 1815, he made many portraits in New England and South Carolina; was the most conspicuous founder of the National Academy, and its first president, (delivering there the first course of lectures on art given in this country), and was an active artist up to 1832, when the problem of telegraphic communication began to absorb him.

Robert Fulton, born a quarter of a century earlier than Morse, painted miniatures in New York as early as 1785; and though he soon after entered upon his long scientific career, he continued to paint in his intervals of leisure. When in Paris he originated the first panorama shown there. He was deeply attached to Benjamin West, and spent thousands of dollars for the artist's paintings and engravings. Our great naturalist, John James Audubon, who had studied in Paris under the famous master, David, devoted his artistic gifts and training to his scientific work, and produced very little aside from his wonderful drawings of birds. His two sons became known as animal painters.

Side by side with these men, grew up a set of younger painters, born about 1800, whose work in history, por-

*Vanderlyn's early opportunities were due to Aaron Burr, who became interested in him through the boy's fine copy of Burr's portrait by Stuart. He took the lad under his care, enabled him to study for nearly a year with Stuart, ordered portraits of himself and the lovely Theodosia, and finally gave him the means for five years of work in Paris. It was a comfort to the grateful painter that when Burr fled in disgrace to France he was able to help him,—indeed Vanderlyn was his sole support during the first year of his fallen fortunes.

traiture and genre is to be considered next month. Among them was Henry Inman, represented here by his portrait of the actor, Macready; and William Sidney Mount, a young artist from Long Island, who began to work in New York about 1829 along a new line, portraying with skill and sympathy, the homely, humorous aspects of everyday American life. In historical painting, also a new field, a conspicuous beginning was made by John Trumbull, who finally settled here in 1816, and became a prominent figure during the next decade, through the large compositions he was commissioned to execute for the Capitol.

But the most notable achievement of this period of beginnings was the sudden development of serious and original work in landscape painting. Most of our painters had tried their hands at landscape for amusement or experiment; it was not unfamiliar, but had never excited special interest except as accessory to some figure composition. Now, however, a man appeared whose transcripts of our own scenery,—views on the Hudson and in the Catskills, brilliant autumnal woods, and great vistas of hill and valley—roused intense interest; Thomas Cole, in a brief twenty years of struggle, labor and devotion, laid the foundation for our present renown in modern landscape. His pupil, F. E. Church, whose "Niagara" has long been famous, and other painters belonging to the movement, such as Durand, Doughty, Kensett, Bierstadt, and their co-workers, as well as the story of Cole's own life and influence, belong to the absorbing topic of our January article, the development of landscape painting in America.

The various forces which during this period helped to form and direct our painting, remain to be discussed next month. Among these, the influence of Gilbert Stuart was especially important, because of the supremacy of his achievement and his generous helpfulness toward the younger men who came to him for advice. Important in a different way was the life and character of Washington Allston, also a dominant personality in our artistic and social life. A

"radiant young genius," born in South Carolina and educated at Newport and Harvard, Allston spent the early years of the century abroad; but from 1818, when he settled near Boston, until his death in 1843, he was a revered and beloved figure here,—a brilliant, ardent, and remarkably fascinating idealist.

Before summing up the growth of these early years, I must pay a too brief tribute to William Dunlap, the artist and author, who has preserved for us the annals of this and the earlier periods of our country's art. Born in 1766, his career, covering the last quarter of the eighteenth and the first of the nineteenth century, brought him in touch with three generations of artists; he was one of the chief founders of the National Academy, and was active in every project for forwarding art, as well as the drama. Five years before his death in 1839,* he published two volumes of precious data regarding our artists, which he had gathered from fast-disappearing sources. Conscientious, upright, a sturdy patriot, and a true artist, Dunlap has rendered us invaluable service by his simple, straightforward record; and has revealed in it the enthusiasm, the force, the tremendous courage in the face of discouragement, and the faith in our ultimate artistic triumph, which characterized those early painters. As one who has gleaned in the same field—now grown so infinitely richer!—it is a joy to voice here my appreciation of his pioneer efforts.

Looking back over the first quarter of the century at the date of Stuart's death in 1828, we find that John Trumbull is the last important painter left of the many Colonial and Revolutionary men at work when the century opened.

*"The Rise and Progress of the Arts of Design in the United States," (See September bibliography).

In 1886, a "Dunlap Society" was organized in New York to preserve the meritorious, but well-nigh forgotten, plays of Dunlap and other early American dramatists. His comedy, "The Father," was the second play written by an American author. His "History of the American Theater," (N. Y., 1832; London, 1833), his life of George Frederick Cooke, the actor, (London, 1813) and his life of Charles Brockden Brown, our first novelist, (Phila., 1815), are valuable works of contemporary biography and criticism.

Ralph Earl, Matthew Pratt, Copley, West, C. W. Peale, and Stuart himself, have all passed away,—and with West's going, the hospitable welcome for American students in London has ceased. But meantime, there has been a decided increase of opportunity at home. In New York, the National Academy of Design has been established, with large yearly exhibitions, and a flourishing little school for art students. The Boston Athenæum has opened a room where students may copy a few casts and portraits; the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, (the oldest in America,) has been founded in 1805, and also affords instruction; and Rembrandt Peale's Museum has been opened in Baltimore since about 1813.

To this period belongs not only the impulse which founded our first art schools and galleries, but the beginnings of connoisseurship, the encouragement and appreciation of art by a few wealthy individuals. Men like Luman Reed and others in New York, Mr. Longworth in Cincinnati, Fenimore Cooper, and the rest, played an important part in sustaining the artist's efforts,—a fact indicative of the new era. Painting had become more than the art of portraiture alone, exercised by a host of itinerant limners, and by important men in one or two cities, who had no support or companionship from an organization of fellow painters. The scope of the art had widened, there were larger opportunities, more appreciation, a different intercourse between the artist and his public; to some extent they stood together, and together set about the work of foundation-laying. In the wider outlook and memorable achievements of today, let us not forget the sacrifices, the patience, the steadfastness and the ability, of that faithful yesterday! It has bequeathed us that beauty which comes unannounced, "springing up between the feet of brave and earnest men."

PAINTINGS.

The New York Historical Society is the great treasure-house for this period, containing examples of practically every man of note. Oil portraits, landscapes, historical and allegorical compo-

sitions, miniatures, drawings, and even the cast of a head modelled by Jarvis in his eager study of facial anatomy are here.

Malbone's "The Hours" is in the Athenæum at Providence, R. I. A fine portrait of himself in the Corcoran Gallery, Washington, is one of his few essays in oil, (life size).

The men mentioned are well represented in the Pennsylvania Academy; and, less fully, in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts and Metropolitan Museum of Art.

Sully's "Lafayette" is in Independence Hall, Philadelphia; his "Thomas Jefferson" at West Point; his own portrait and three others in the Corcoran Gallery.

BIOGRAPHY.

Tuckerman, Lester and *Isham* already given. Art in America, by S. G. W. Benjamin (N. Y., 1880); Artist Biographies, by M. F. Sweetser (Boston, 1879); article on John Vanderlyn in Vol III of *Putnam's Magazine*; another, by his friend, Bishop Kip, in the *Atlantic Monthly* for February, 1867.

End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for December.

Urgency of Improved Steerage Conditions

Based on the Personal Experiences of Kellogg Durland

WHEN our Government recognizes that the Americanization of our prospective citizens begins when they embark for our shores, and that the conditions which surround them in the steerage quarters of the mighty ships that bring them over seas produce the first impressions of American standards, steps will be taken to so improve and transform those conditions that the standard of living below-decks will be raised until it is compatible with decency, and American civilization. At the present time the treatment of men, women and children in the steerage of certain ships coming from German, Mediterranean and Adriatic ports is far below this standard. An acquaintance of mine crossed from Germany recently in the steerage of a ship, aboard which was a magnificent race horse, owned by a wealthy American horse fancier. There being no better accommodation provided for this horse a loose box stall was contrived in the steerage quarters, in the same room where

several hundred passengers slept and ate their meals. My own experiences in the steerage of two English ships running between Mediterranean ports and New York clearly revealed how crying are the needs of the steerage. More than one million four hundred thousand immigrants now come to us each year. The greatest majority of these come through the ports of New York and Boston. In round numbers more than 800,000 come in ships whose steerage conditions are unsanitary, unclean, often indecent, and throughout unworthy. The steerage rates are exorbitant, out of all proportion to the first cabin rates in view of the relative conditions and privileges of these respective classes.

When I set out upon my investigation of steerage conditions I recognized the necessity for concealing my identity, so adopting the nondescript name of "Joe Nil," I dressed in clothes that were torn as well as dirty and old, and with a battered soft hat crushed over my face, which was effectually screened by a stubby beard, I boarded a ship in New York bound for Naples. My real interest was in the conditions of the return trip, but I reckoned upon the out trip to familiarize myself with the general ways of the steerage decks, and to adjust myself to my unaccustomed role.

Any doubts I may have had concerning my disguise were speedily dispelled. At the head of the gangway a master-at-arms halted me to inquire if I had about my person what he called a "shot gun," and when I had told him "No," he inquired, in German, if I was an Italian. A moment later an Italian asked me if I was German. The third class steward told me to join a Slovak group, and when I protested that I was English he changed me to the miscellaneous table where I sat down between a blackeyed Egyptian returning to his home in Alexandria and a portly Greek. While we were waiting for our first meal the company round the bare tables began to look each other over by way of prefacing acquaintance. A young Italian opposite me looked over and asked abruptly:

"Where you come from?"

"I'm English," I replied.

"You lie!" he answered briskly.

"Then what do you think I am?"

"Dunno. Europe somewheres. Maybe you Swiss."

After luncheon I rescued a small Italian girl from a perilous perch over an open hatch. Far from appreciating the kindness she hotly resented my interference and as she scampered off into the motley steerage crowd she kept calling "Sheeny!" "Sheeny!"

These incidents help to explain how it came about on the return trip that the Ellis Island authorities detained me for two days until the Board of Special Inquiry finally decided to deport me "as an undesirable alien." They indicated that there was nothing about my appearance in any way unusual to the rank and file of my fellow passengers of the third class. Confidences were, therefore, quickly exchanged, and I think I was able to get pretty close to the steerage point of view.

We were not yet out of Sandy Hook lightship when Dominick, a fine looking Italian whose bunk was next to mine, came and flung himself down on the same pile of wet hawsers where I was sprawling.

"Say," he began, "what's your name?"

"Joe," I replied.

"Dominick my name."

Then there was a pause for a moment. Suddenly Dominick looked up at me:

"Joe, I go home to my country to get married."

"That's fine, Dominick," I returned. "How long have you been in America?"

"Three years."

"And has the girl been waiting for you all this time?"

Dominick looked puzzled and I repeated my question.

"She no wait. She don't know."

This time I was puzzled. Dominick thereupon explained that this was the dull season in the Brooklyn spoon factory where he worked and he had been granted two

months off to visit the old country. In those two months he hoped to visit his old father and mother, to find a likely helpmeet for life, to woo, to win and to marry her! During the three years he had worked in America he had saved several hundred dollars (saved out of his \$11.00 a week). As he was now twenty-nine years old he thought it about time to marry and establish a home.

"By an' by be old," he said. "No wanta work. Can't work. If we have children—they work, me no have to work."

"Why not marry an American girl?" I ventured.

A look of disdain came over his face.

"'Merican girl no good. Too much spenda de money. Too much Coney Island. Too much dance hall. Italia woman different. Italia woman work and sava de money. Puta de money in de bank. Me no want 'Merican girl for wife."

Dominick was typical of a class, I might almost call him a typical Italian. Italian immigrants, more than any others, preserve their roots in their native land. They hoard their money to send or carry back, they return then for their wives, and more than other people they go back for the last years of their lives.

The ship we were on carried a large steerage, for mid-winter, and most of the passengers were Italians returning for a visit or to marry. The other nationalities altogether—the Austrians, the Hungarians, the Bohemians, the Croations, the Dalmatians, the Greeks and all the others, did not number as many as the Italians.

The vessel was of the Cunard Line, which in some respects is better than the German or Italian lines. We had tables to sit down to, for example, and we did not have to wash our own dishes as is usual on most other lines. There were, however, some outrageous impositions. In our common dining room where more than 500 steerage passengers ate there were sixty occupied berths. When the ship is crowded this number is often increased to more than 200. But take sixty. From New York to Naples is a trip of thir-

teen to fourteen days. On this particular trip storms raged for six days and nights. Many of the occupants of the sixty berths in the dining room were horribly seasick. I myself sat at a middle table in such close proximity to one tier of bunks that I had only to extend my arm to reach them. We of the steerage were not being deadheaded to Europe. I had paid \$30.00 for my ticket, and consequently I felt entitled to reasonably decent treatment. The grand people in the first cabin had paid only \$90.00 and sometimes first class passage can be bought for \$75.00, yet the comforts and luxuries of the saloon are infinite compared to the steerage. Steerage conditions must be crude, of course, and plain. But to stall a horse in a dining room, and keep it there for nearly a fortnight, and to lodge several score of seasick passengers in the dining room where *all* of the steerage is forced to eat is unnecessary and wrong.

My care, however, was not so much for the conditions on the out trip as on the return. Here, I found the conditions so much worse than anything I found going out, that I am inclined to pass lightly over these impositions for the present. They are bad, they should be attended to and corrected, but other matters are more urgent.

In the first place, the ships coming from Europe are more crowded. The passengers are for the most part densely ignorant of all ways of the world. Thousands upon thousands of them have never been away from their own farms and villages before, and they submit to the treatment of cattle with the docility of ignorance. They don't like it, but they don't know any better. And here lies the whole trouble with the steerage question. The steerage people submit to anything—because they don't know what to do about it. The ships plying between Great Britain and America have provided decent steerage accommodations, staterooms for four and six, a dining room that serves no other purpose, a recreation room, clean sanitary conditions and proper food. All this should be provided on all vessels bringing aliens to our country. The steamship companies, however, cannot be unduly credited with these im-

proved conditions on the vessels carrying English speaking passengers. They are the result of constant and continued grumbling on the part of the passengers of past years, and of long agitation. No one champions the Italians, the Slavs and all the peoples of Eastern and Central Europe, and as they cannot express their dissatisfaction in any tongue understood by English-speaking officers they are forced to accept all manner of impositions. This is the reason why I suggest that some enterprising woman's club, or other organization, take up this matter. The steamship companies would yield to pressure. They would cease to take unscrupulous advantage of people who cannot protest for themselves. And I know of no greater service that could be done America in connection with our vast so-called immigration problem. Hundreds of immigrants accept steamship impositions meekly enough, every single month, but they remember later, how they suffered. Thus, the spirit of getting the better of someone, the spirit of graft, is their first impression of America.

The ship I sailed back from Naples on was a White Star steamer. I paid \$36.00 for my ticket. There was no dining room at all provided, and we had to wash our own dishes—which were of tin—and absolutely no other provision was made for this than a barrel of cold sea water! Sometimes I tried to scrape the greasy macaroni off my plate with my finger nails. Several times I was lucky enough to pick up a bit of newspaper somewhere for a dish cloth.

When we boarded the ship we found our "gear" (as our dishes were called) reposing in our bunks. Each passenger's "gear" consisted of one tin saucepan, one tin dipper, a tin spoon and a tin fork. Nothing else. Not even a knife. Each passenger is supposed to retain his "gear" throughout the trip, and to take entire charge of it himself.

The entire steerage was divided into groups of four, six and eight each. Each of these groups appointed a captain to go to the galley at each meal to receive the dole of food for the entire group. These groups make themselves as comfortable as they can—anywhere. Sometimes on a

hatch, sometimes on deck, sometimes in their bunks. The steerage is not provided with means for sitting down so usually the meals are eaten on the floor. After the food of each group has been apportioned every man shifts for himself—or goes without if he can't stand the filth and the smells and the discomforts.

I shall never forget the first meal I received on this boat. We had left Naples late in the afternoon. The rent in the side of Vesuvius was already beginning to glow blood red. About dusk we were called to the galley. I had not joined any definite group at that time so taking my gear in my hands I lined up with the long row of captains down the galley passageway. The food was being dispensed from the galley by two Italian stewards. When my turn came to receive the dole I had to brace myself considerably. The first steward was a dirty, middle-aged Italian in a filthy shirt. A hand soiled with all kinds of dirt—ship dirt, kitchen dirt and human dirt—pulled a great “cob” or biscuit out of a burlap sack and shoved it towards me. Then he snatched up a tin dipper and filled it with coarse red wine. As he handed this to me he sneezed—into the hand from which I had just taken my biscuit. That sneeze came nearer to being my undoing than six days of storm on the out trip. I passed quickly to the next man who slopped a dipper of macaroni soup into my saucepan. This was the complete meal, and every bit as good as the best meal I had on the whole trip. There is no complaint about the quantity of the food, but the quality, and the way that it was served was not fit for human beings. I am not in the least hypercritical here. I can, and did, more than once, eat my plate of macaroni after I had picked out the worms, the water bugs, and on one occasion a hairpin. But why should these things ever be found in the food served to passengers who are paying \$36.00 for their passage? Such gross carelessness is indulged in only because the White Star Steamship Company knows that the steerage people are not in a position to lodge any material complaint or to make any serious objection.

Another matter of importance is in regard to the sanitary arrangements. These were entirely inadequate to the number of passengers. Even the washing facilities were hopelessly few. Often I would wait half an hour for a basin, and sometimes, when the ship was rolling and the atmosphere of the washroom became so close and fetid that I could not hold out against it I omitted my morning ablutions entirely. I did this less frequently than scores of my fellow passengers, however, for I found that on the whole I was better able to stand steerage hardships than many men, and much better than the women, who have never been to sea before and are painfully ill the whole way across.

I shall not go into detail in regard to the lax methods of some companies in regard to keeping the sexes distinct. I have heard many an outrageous story, however, of peasant girls being maltreated in the steerage of vessels bringing them to this country.

It is impossible within the compass of one short article to go into the details of the voyage, or to dwell at any length upon the various evils of steerage conditions. What I hope I have been successful in doing here, however, is to indicate that reform is necessary, and in pointing out some of the specific delinquencies of the steamship companies showing that these reforms are of a very practical character.

During the year which ended in June, 1907, more than 1,400,000 immigrants came into the United States. Our own immigration authorities are handling this enormous multitude with rare skill. The Ellis Island Station, under the supervision of Commissioner Robert Watchorn has attained a splendid standard of efficiency. Each year now the immigration "problem" with us is more and more becoming a question of distribution. The question cannot be left to the comparatively small force of the Department of Immigration, though. It is a national question in every sense. And it begins not merely at our portals, but across the water, at the point where the immigrants board the ships to come to us. It has been shown that steerage con-

ditions are improved when the pressure of public opinion is brought to bear upon the steamship companies. Inasmuch as this is such a vital matter with us—this focusing of right American influences upon our would-be citizens at the earliest possible moment—the value of any work that will stimulate or accomplish this is obviously inestimable.

Thomas Wentworth Higginson as an Author and Reformer

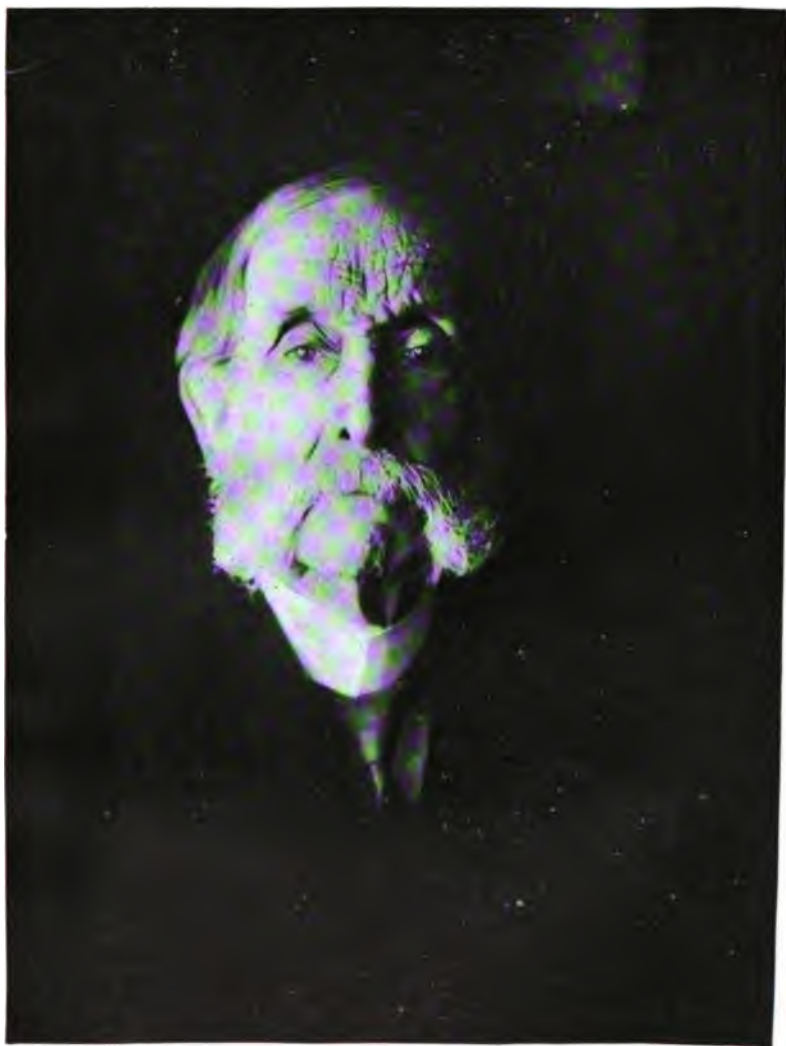
That there are no ideals that cannot be realized, is virtually the religion of Thomas Wentworth Higginson. A Confederate bullet checked a career of great activity only to give to the world a trenchant writer, speaker, and advocate of equality, justice, and freedom, irrespective of race, code, or creed. Thomas Paine said, "Where liberty is not, there is my country." Thomas W. Higginson might have said, "Where liberty is not, there is my heart and soul and pen." Higginson is the incarnation of the spirit of America: freedom, in thought, in opportunity, in religion, in political affiliation.

It was a sermon passionately condemning slavery that lost to Mr. Higginson his pulpit at Newburyport, Mass., in 1850. He scorned the dogma of sect and took charge of a Free Church in Worcester and ran for Congress as a Free-Soil candidate. Defeat in this ambition drove him to a wider field of activity and he took up the pen and mounted the platform in behalf of the slaves of the South. Higginson's restless activities led him to take a personal part in an attempt to rescue a fugitive slave and he got into the toils of the law for his pains. He next turned his attention to the cause of Free Soil and helped to organize emigrant parties bound for Kansas in 1856. John Brown was his friend and Mr. Higginson served as brigadier-general on James H. Lane's staff in the free-state forces. When the

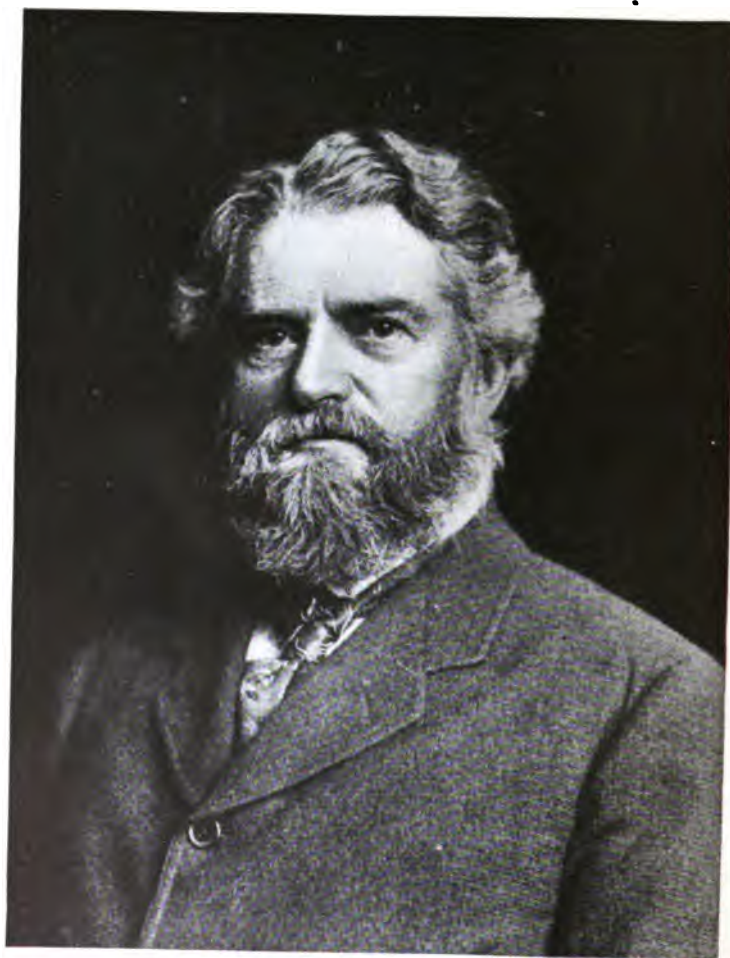
war broke out he led the first regiment of negroes against the South and many other regiments afterwards until wounded at Wiltown Bluffs, Fla., and was forced by disability to return home in October, 1864. But his activities were transferred to literature and the platform, and there was no cause wherein the eternal justices figured in which he did not make himself a champion. Chivalrously, but with force and logic, Higginson espoused the cause of woman suffrage and her emancipation from legal and industrial limitations. Ever the champion of freedom his pen and voice struck forcibly for Filipino independence. He decried an American colonial policy, pointing out the beneficence of a course that was pursued by our statesmen toward Mexico and Japan when those two since powerful nations lay within our grasp.

Mr. Higginson's literary activities have been conspicuous. His histories of the United States long stood first in the schools of the country, and his fiction, poetry, and reminiscences have taken a high place.

Mr. Higginson was a member of the Massachusetts legislature in 1880 and 1881, serving also on the staff of the governor. For some years he was a member of the State Board of Education of his native state, and his alma mater, Harvard, has repeatedly honored him, ultimately bestowing upon him its highest degree. He lives in quiet retirement at Cambridge, Mass.



Thomas Wentworth Higginson



Simon Newcomb

Some Great American Scientists*

III. Simon Newcomb

By Malcomb McNeill

Professor of Physics in Lake Forest University.

AMONG the American men of science who by their attainments have won a world-wide reputation, few take a more honored place than Professor Simon Newcomb. His work has not been of the spectacular order, and is hardly of the type fitted to make a good "story" for a Sunday supplement; but it has been recognized as of first rate importance by men of science throughout the civilized world. Briefly stated it has been in large measure a study of the law of gravitation in its action on the various members of the solar system. This is not at present the popular side of astronomy and attracts fewer devotees than the newer lines of research. The invention of the spectroscope which enables us to study the chemical constitution and physical condition of the heavenly bodies, and the recent developments of photography which show us things far beyond the reach of direct vision even with the most powerful telescope have called the attention of many astronomers away from the older gravitational astronomy and its problems, although these last are by no means all conquered and will give work for many generations to come.

This study of the physical constitution and development of the heavenly bodies under the influence of heat and other natural forces in addition to gravitation is intensely interesting. Many noble discoveries have been made and many more will doubtless soon be brought out, and men who are making them are worthy of the highest praise, but it is well that one article in this series should tell of

*The first article of this issue, "Asa Gray," by Prof. Charles Reid Barnes, appeared in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for September; the second, "John James Audubon," by Prof. Samuel C. Schmucker, in October.

a man who has for the most part kept to the older lines of work and in so doing has advanced the cause of learning and worthily upheld the name of American men of science among the nations of the world.

The career of Professor Newcomb has not been a notably eventful one. It merely adds another name to the long list of those who have achieved their life purpose unaided by family influence, money, educational opportunities, or powerful friendships. He was born in 1835 in Nova Scotia, although most of his ancestors for a number of generations were New Englanders. They were for the most part plain people of no great wealth or position. His father was a country school teacher living the more or less nomadic life common to teachers of that time and region, and the son picked up the ordinary common school education in a desultory fashion. He showed an early bias for mathematics and natural science, and with a most scanty equipment of books and no formal instruction by masters he won his way while still under age to a knowledge and comprehension of these subjects possessed by few men at the time of their graduation from college.

He came to the United States in 1853 after a very unsatisfactory two years' apprenticeship to a country doctor, half ignoramus, half quack, and shortly after began to teach in Maryland. While here he began to have better opportunities to pursue his chosen work, and made the acquaintance of Professor Joseph Henry and other men of science in Washington, who were able to furnish him some little guidance in his work. In 1857 he secured a position as computer of the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac at the munificent salary of thirty dollars a month. The headquarters of this government publication were then at Cambridge, Mass., and while here he worked in the Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard University, receiving in 1858 the degree of Bachelor of Science. Since then many universities of this country and Europe have done honor to themselves in the bestowal of degrees upon him.

The bare enumeration would cover a page of this magazine.

Since this first employment as computer, Professor Newcomb's entire life up to the time of his retirement has been spent in government service. He was appointed Professor of Mathematics in the United States Navy in 1861 and was assigned to duty at the Naval Observatory in Washington. His work at the Observatory was continued until 1877 when he became head of the Nautical Almanac office and continued in that position until his retirement in 1897. In 1894 he was made professor of mathematics and astronomy in Johns Hopkins University. While in government service he made numerous journeys to observe various astronomical phenomena, beginning with a trip to the Hudson's Bay region to observe the solar eclipse of 1860, then to Des Moines, Iowa, to observe the eclipse of 1869; in the following year to Spain for a similar purpose, and in 1882 to the Cape of Good Hope for the Transit of Venus of that year. Since his retirement he has been by no means idle and any reader of the current scientific periodicals will meet with frequent references to the astronomical work which still occupies his attention.

Now as to his scientific achievements. His strongest bent after he began to be conscious of his mental power was along the line of celestial mechanics; he has continued in this line throughout his life and in it has accomplished what he and the scientific world at large consider his best work, although perhaps some other pieces of work have attracted greater public attention.

His first work which brought him into notice outside our own country, done while he was computer on the Nautical Almanac at Cambridge, was an investigation in regard to the ring of small planets between Mars and Jupiter, whether they were not fragments of an earlier and larger planet which had in some way been broken up. The problem was decidedly complicated, although perhaps not so much so then as now, as the bodies then known were very few in number compared with the six hundred and

more which now form a very troublesome family to care for. Each one of these little bodies changes more or less the motion of all the rest and the larger planets outside and inside their orbits also in greater degree do the same thing; and this process has been going on for ages. The question to be solved was this: Was there ever a time when all these bodies were together? Newcomb's conclusion that evidence of such conjunction was lacking has since become the prevailing opinion, and it is now generally believed that these bodies were originally formed as separate members of the solar system.

Up to the time when Professor Newcomb took up his work at the Washington observatory he had had little or no experience in making observations with astronomical instruments. His first work was with the transit, then with the mural circle. When the new Pistor and Martin's transit circle was installed in 1865 he was placed in charge, and while he remained at the observatory his principal observational work was done with this instrument. He did very little work with the 26-inch telescope, for many years the greatest in the world, although he had an important part in the procuring and designing of this great instrument. His work in taking astronomical observations was mainly confined to the decade of 1860-1870, for although his connection with the observatory was not severed until 1877 his work during the later years was on the computational and theoretical side rather than on the observational. The somewhat popular conception of an astronomer as being principally occupied in "gazing through a telescope at the orbs revolving in space" was not fulfilled in Professor Newcomb's work. Only a small fraction of his life was spent in observational work and that was done with instruments of which a telescope forms only a part, a necessary one, it is true, for refinement in observation, but still an adjunct rather than an essential. The telescope serves the same purpose on a transit circle as a sight on a gun. Through its aid the instrument can be more accurately pointed. Pro-

fessor Newcomb's great purpose was to fix as accurately as possible the position and motion of the various bodies of the solar system and especially the moon. Incidentally there was a large amount of observation of the stars.

The datum given by an observation of a planet with the transit circle is merely the direction of the body at the time of the observation. Kepler had shown that the planets move in ellipses and from the planetary motions Newton had proved the law of gravitation. Gauss had shown how from the directions at three different times the elliptical path of a planet might be computed; but all of this was on the supposition that the sun and one planet were the only bodies concerned. This was of course from the outset known to be only approximately true. Each body in the system influences and is itself influenced by every other body and the simple elliptic orbits are subject to continual slight changes due to the interaction of the various planets on each other. The complete solution of this problem of the future motion of the various members of the solar system from a knowledge of present and past conditions is beyond the reach of our present knowledge, but close approximations can be made, and a great part of Professor Newcomb's work during his later years at the observatory and throughout his superintendency of the Nautical Almanac has been the preparation of formulae and tables by which the positions of the principal planets and of the moon may be predicted for future use. The final work on the moon is not yet produced, but the planetary tables are in use the world over, even more in other countries than in this.

The motion of the moon forms the most complicated problem in celestial mechanics. Its deviations from the normal elliptic orbit are larger and more numerous than those of any other member of the solar system. Almost all of the older national observatories were established for the study of the moon's motion as by its position navigators were enabled to determine their longitude. In these days of quick voyages and accurate chronometers the moon is

not of such great service to mariners, but when for any reason the chronometer becomes uncertain the moon must still be used. The study of the motion of our satellite has therefore been a most important one from the practical as well as the theoretical side. The study of the motion of the moon attracted the attention of Professor Newcomb early in his career and he has kept up the work throughout his whole life. Even now the completed results are not yet published although it is hoped that they will be before long.

In 1857, just about the time when Newcomb was beginning his work, the Danish astronomer, Hansen, published with the aid of the British government tables of the motion of the moon. They were based on observations made at Greenwich since the establishment of the observatory in the seventeenth century, but the era of observations exact enough for comparison with present day measurements was for most of the work supposed to begin with the time when Bradley took charge of the observatory, about the middle of the eighteenth century. Hansen accordingly did not attempt to use observations earlier than 1750 and was able to use only a small portion of those accumulated since that time, as his work was done with only scanty assistance, and reduction of lunar observations is one of the most laborious tasks in astronomy.

The question as to whether Hansen's tables were accurate enough to predict the moon's place was a very interesting one, and it was soon found that although fairly satisfactory for a time, the moon soon developed a tendency to get farther and farther away from its predicted place. Various theories to account for the discrepancy were offered, uncertain distances, masses, etc., of the bodies concerned, insufficiently close approximation in formulae used, were certain series used, "convergent," etc. All of these things had more or less weight, but astronomers were at a loss to know how to verify their theories by actual comparison with observation. Hansen had apparently used practically all of the exact material available and there was little

suspicion of numerical inaccuracy in his work. They did not like to wait for the accumulated observations of another century.

One of Professor Newcomb's chief services to lunar science has been this: He has unearthed and made available a series of observations, taken mainly at the Paris observatory, extending back to 1675, with a few of less accuracy some years earlier. These Paris observations are in many ways as useful as the later ones at Greenwich, and therefore Professor Newcomb has nearly doubled the time through which exact observations of the moon are available.

These observations which he found are "occultations" of stars by the moon. The moon not infrequently in its progress along its orbit passes between us and a star. The suddenness with which a star disappears or reappears is startling, and the phenomenon is most interesting. At the time the star disappears or reappears we know that the distance of the moon's center from the star is equal to the moon's radius and as the position of the star is known that of the moon can be easily deduced. Fortunately the French astronomers recorded the times of the occultations observed, or at least left records from which the times could be computed. Professor Newcomb unearthed most of these records from the old note books in the Paris observatory during the time of the Commune just after the Franco-Prussian war while the city was besieged by the national troops. His account of conditions and events at that time is very interesting.

Notwithstanding all the labors of Newcomb and his predecessors the moon still refuses to exactly follow the path marked out for her by theory, although each new effort brings the theory a little closer to the fact. Newcomb's work marked a good step in advance, but there is an abundance of room for more work and our country is not lacking in men who are engaged on the task.

Professor Newcomb was at the head of the American commission on the Transits of Venus in 1874 and 1882, and

was in the observing party in 1882, whose station was at the Cape of Good Hope. When the next transits occur, about a century hence, their interest for astronomers will not be the same as it has been. They have hitherto been observed because theoretically they furnish one of the best means of getting the sun's distance, but certain practical difficulties beyond cure by our best instruments make the observations uncertain. Even before the last transit, many astronomers, Newcomb among them, regarded any large expenditure of time or money as unwise, in view of many other methods of getting the sun's distance involving much smaller expenditure of time and labor.

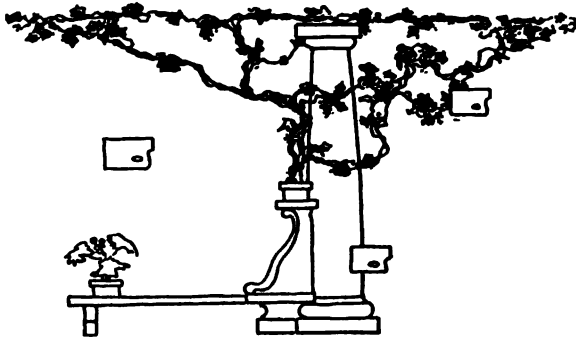
Space fails for the enumeration of all the lines of Professor Newcomb's activity. He played an important part in the preliminaries attendant on the foundation of the Lick Observatory, and in fact has acted as general adviser and counsellor in almost every great astronomical enterprise for nearly half a century, has been presiding officer of most of the great scientific societies of this country and is an honorary member of most of the noted ones of the old world. In addition to his publications devoted to his own original investigations he has been a popularizer of astronomy in the best sense. His "Popular Astronomy" was for many years the standard work along that line in English and his "Reminiscences of an Astronomer," published in 1903, is one of the most instructive and interesting books of that type which have appeared in recent years. He is author of a series of text books on mathematics which have not had the popularity they deserved. They showed what many text books do not show, that the author understood the proper proportion of the various topics, and that he knew where to lay the emphasis so as to make easier the student's farther work in regions more advanced.

He has also strayed somewhat from his chosen field of mathematics and astronomy and has written on political economy and finance. His work with the Society for Psychical Research has made for sanity and sober judgment and

many a fraud has been detected and suppressed.

As stated before he has been made honorary member of many of the European scientific societies. He has been a correspondent of the French Academy since 1874, and in 1893 was made a foreign associate, the first American to be so honored since Franklin. He has received medals from the Royal Society, the Royal Astronomical, the Huyghens medal from Holland, the Schubert prize from Russia, etc., etc. His collection of medals and decorations would make envious the most successful mug hunting track athlete or golf maniac.

May he be spared for many more years of active work. His career has brought honor to himself and to the nation. He has deserved well of the republic.



**Greeting to C. L. S. C. Readers from David Starr
Jordan, President of Leland Stanford Jr.
University.**

Prof. George E. Vincent,

Dear Sir:

I have been very much interested in the development of the Chautauqua idea ever since its inception. No one can estimate the amount of uplift which has been given to the people of the United States by the opportunities granted to busy people to know what is going on in the world of thought and action outside the affairs of their daily lives. The universities have felt the value of this great co-operating influence, and I congratulate you on the success of the Chautauqua work in the past and on the certainty of its steadily growing importance in the future.

Very truly yours,

David Starr Jordan

President.

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent.

THE individual life following a true program helps to bring about redemption for the race. He who follows it represents Christ, helps his neighbor, blesses society, overcomes selfishness, builds up the family and brings a gospel to humanity. This is the program of life, of a spiritual life, a growing life, a life of true social service, a life of world-wide influence, an anointed life, the tongue speaking good tidings, as the feet carry one to the cottage of the poor and sorrowful, or to homes of unsatisfying wealth, giving vision, freedom, comfort, and the consolations of grace to those who are most in need.

Dear members of the Class of 1907: Let us seek the ideal character that never allows the refinements of life to blunt one's moral convictions; that never sneers at "old notions" and religious rigidities; that does not substitute ritualistic conformities or evangelistic fervors for a piety, steady, intelligent, heroic and consistent.

Let us not be deceived. One may "feel good" and even experience a sort of rapture under the spell of architectural and ritualistic influences or have spasms of emotional excitement, "being happy," "enjoying himself," as he calls it, and have a sense of "safety" as he thinks of the final judgment, the blessedness of heaven and the reunion with departed friends, and yet he may be as barren of everything essential to a genuine, practical spiritual life as are the pigeons that rest their weary wings among the shadowy eaves of the church itself. One may rapturously dream of heaven and of its reunions, and not have one spark of true faith in his soul. One may have a faith of intellectual assent and have no throb of genuine desire or action of will in the choice of righteousness. One may be religious for

*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year. The article here printed was part of an address delivered last summer to the Class of 1907.

The Vesper Hour

the sake of safety and know nothing about salvation or the spirit of service. One may live for eternity and not live for today. One may have a religion of the Sabbath and the sanctuary and lack utterly a religion for shop, kitchen, field or parlor. We need a religion for all days, sabbath days, holy days, holidays, and working days.

Don't misunderstand me: There is a religious life, intelligent, scriptural, rational, a life of inward peace and divine witness, the whole personality being possessed by it, the life bearing fruit and the consciousness of divine leading giving assurance and courage. The true soul's aim may be religious even when its thoughts are occupied in business, art, literature or recreation. But it does not neglect daily spiritual exercises, reading, reflection and communion with God.

There is another class of people needing greatly a religious program of life: those who have little faith and a weight of doubt; who are not sure of anything; whose questionings bring no satisfactory reply, partly because they are not earnest enough to be solicitous. They do not care. They do not know. They do not really regret that they do not know. They are content to be indifferent. Such souls need an awakening to the fact that "life is real, life is earnest, and the grave is not its goal." They need to read and read, to hear, to question, to give time to thinking over the problems of life, and to place themselves within call from the realm eternal, turning every day with listening ear towards the heavens. It is deplorable to be ignorant of and at the same time indifferent to the deepest verities of the soul.

Let me guard you in one direction: To think of eternity one does not need to look forward. He looks inward and upward and remembers that he is in eternity now! He now "practises the presence of God." Such practise fosters faith, fixes habit and makes history. When later on in his life a day black with cloud drops down upon him, he remembers that blessed yesterday or that day before yes-

terday when the sun shone out of a blue sky or filled his life with light and peace. Dark days will come. This life means struggle, discouragement, at times crucifixion, but after these, power.

God deals with units. His providence looks after the individual. He gives liberty. Then he tests us to see whether we are ready for liberty. He sometimes permits agony where liberty has been abused or when he purposes some special gift of grace. It is a sore thing to endure sometimes when God lets us have our own way. We kindle false fires, forbidden fires and God permits us for a time to warm ourselves by them and then be scorched, or in their ashes to be smothered. He urges us to walk in his way. We persist in having our way. He at first says "No." We persist. And then he says "Go" and we wander in darkness and folly and foulness to learn by the bitterness how foolish it is to choose any way other than God's way. And the wonder of it all is his infinite patience with us, his forbearance, his grace. And we now know the meaning of the story of the Prodigal Son. It was poetry once. It is reality, the reality of infinite grace now! It is after such sore experience in sin that we really find out what sin means and what God's grace means. And we learn the fact of divine providence in every life. "Not a sparrow falleth without your father." The unit is never lost in the universal. The scientist of widest range never forgets the atom.

The telescope has not destroyed human interest in the microscope. Live after a personal program of life, "casting all your care on God for he careth for you!" Never dishonor Him by doubting for one moment the value of the soul—your value in His sight.

The man who most needs the religious program of life is the doubter, the skeptic. A part of his program is to ask questions and go in search of truth through books, conversation, church teaching. To be an honest religious skeptic is to be a student of religion, to think, to read, to hear, to experiment. Don't let a man talk about being honest

The Vesper Hour

or an honest doubter who does not as a skeptic attend church, converse with intelligent Christians, or read with care the vigorous books ready for him, books on the history and mission and defenses of the Christian faith.

Thus a daily religious program of life keeps the soul awake, develops power of will, encourages one to examine the ruling factors in his personality; establishing a habit in religious life promotes self knowledge, encourages one to seek helpful religious environment, to increase his interest in the serious side of life, and thus make God's presence and providence more real.

This personal program of life is likely to extend from the individual to his spheres of largest influence—the family, the business circle, the neighborhood. His children and guests and servants and business partners all gain from his gain in this broader view of life and its human and divine, its present and its future relations.

Members of the Class of 1907, members of our circle that girdles the globe, men and women of all spheres and of all faiths and of no faith, I plead with you this bright August day by the lake side, under these cloudless skies, resolve to follow the great Master of Souls, to make his custom your custom, his ideal your ideal, his throbbing heart your resting place, his eternal fellowship and treasure your inheritance.



English Writers on America.*

By Washington Irving.

IT is with feelings of deep regret that I observe the literary animosity daily growing up between England and America. Great curiosity has been awakened of late with respect to the United States, and the London press has teemed with volumes of travels through the Republic; but they seem intended to diffuse error rather than knowledge; and so successful have they been, that, notwithstanding the constant intercourse between the nations, there is no people concerning whom the great mass of the British public have less pure information, or entertain more numerous prejudices.

English travelers are the best and the worst in the world. Where no motives of pride or interest intervene, none can equal them for profound and philosophical views of society, or faithful and graphical descriptions of external objects; but when either the interest or reputation of their own country comes in collision with that of another, they go to the opposite extreme, and forget their usual probity and candor, in the indulgence of splenetic remark, and an illiberal spirit of ridicule.

Hence, their travels are more honest and accurate, the more remote the country described. I would place implicit confidence in the Englishman's descriptions of the regions beyond the cataracts of the Nile; of unknown islands in

*Washington Irving's essay, "English Writers on America," admirably supplements Mr. John Graham Brooks' series "As Others See Us," written as it was by an author, free from national prejudices and intimately acquainted alike with the England and America of his day.

the Yellow Sea; of the interior of India; or of any other tract which other travelers might be apt to picture out with the illusions of their fancies; but I would cautiously receive his account of his immediate neighbors, and of those nations with which he is in habits of most frequent intercourse. However I might be disposed to trust his probity, I dare not trust his prejudices.

It has also been the peculiar lot of our country to be visited by the worst kind of English travelers. While men of philosophical spirit and cultivated minds have been sent from England to ransack the poles, to penetrate the deserts, and to study the manners and customs of barbarous nations, with which she can have no permanent intercourse of profit or pleasure; it has been left to the broken-down tradesman, the scheming adventurer, the wandering mechanic, the Manchester and Birmingham agent, to be her oracle respecting America. From such sources she is content to receive her information respecting a country in a singular state of moral and physical development; a country in which one of the greatest political experiments in the history of the world is now performing; and which presents the most profound and momentous studies to the statesman and the philosopher.

That such men should give prejudicial accounts of America is not a matter of surprise. The themes it offers for contemplation are too vast and elevated for their capacities. The national character is yet in a state of fermentation; it may have its frothiness and sediment, but the ingredients are sound and wholesome; it has already given proofs of powerful and generous qualities; and the whole promises to settle down into something substantially excellent. But the causes which are operating to strengthen and ennoble it, and its daily indications of admirable properties, are all lost upon these purblind observers; who are only affected by the little asperities incident to its present situation. They are capable of judging only of the surface of things; of those matters which come in contact with their private interests and personal gratifications. They miss

some of the snug conveniences and petty comforts which belong to an old, highly-finished, and over-populous state of society; where the ranks of useful labor are crowded and many earn a painful and servile subsistence by studying the very caprices of appetite and self-indulgence. These minor comforts, however, are all-important in the estimation of narrow minds; which either do not perceive, or will not acknowledge, that they are more than counter-balanced among us by great and generally diffused blessings.

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One would suppose, however, that information coming from such sources, on a subject where the truth is so desirable, would be received with caution by the censors of the press; that the motives of these men, their veracity, their opportunities of inquiry and observation, and their capacities for judging correctly, would be rigorously scrutinized before their evidence was admitted, in such sweeping extent, against a kindred nation. The very reverse, however, is the case, and it furnishes a striking instance of human inconsistency. Nothing can surpass the vigilance with which English critics will examine the credibility of the traveler who publishes an account of some distant, and comparatively unimportant country. How warily will they compare the measurements of a pyramid, or the descriptions of a ruin; and how sternly will they censure any inaccuracy in these contributions of merely curious knowledge: while they will receive, with eagerness and unhesitating faith, the gross misrepresentations of coarse and obscure writers, concerning a country with which their own is placed in the most important and delicate relations.

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For ourselves, it is comparatively of but little importance whether England does us justice or not; it is perhaps, of far more importance to herself. She is instilling anger and resentment into the bosom of a youthful nation, to grow with its growth and strengthen with its strength. If in America, as some of her neighbors are labor-

ing to convince us, she is hereafter to find an invidious rival, and a gigantic foe, she may thank those very writers for having provoked rivalry and irritated hostility. Every one knows the all-pervading influence of literature at the present day, and how much the opinions and passions of mankind are under its control. The mere contests of the sword are temporary; their wounds are but in the flesh, and it is the pride of the generous to forgive and forget them; but the slanders of the pen pierce to the heart; they rankle longest in the noblest spirits; they dwell ever present in the mind, and render it morbidly sensitive to the most trifling collision. It is but seldom that any one overt act produces hostilities between the two nations; there exists, most commonly, a previous jealousy and ill-will; a predisposition to take offense. Trace these to their cause, and how often will they be found to originate in the mischievous effusions of mercenary writers; who, secure in their closets, and for ignominious bread, concoct and circulate the venom that is to inflame the generous and the brave.

I am not laying too much stress upon this point; for it applies most emphatically to our particular case. Over no nation does the press hold a more absolute control than over the people of America; for the universal education of the poorest classes makes every individual a reader. There is nothing established in England on the subject of our country that does not circulate through every part of it. There is not a calumny dropped from English pen, nor an unworthy sarcasm uttered by an English statesman, that does not go to blight good-will, and add to the mass of latent resentment. Possessing, then, as England does, the fountain-head whence the literature of the language flows, how completely is it in her power, and how truly is it her duty, to make it the medium of amiable and magnanimous feeling—a stream where the two nations might meet together, and drink in peace and kindness. Should she, however, persist in turning it to waters of bitterness, the time may come when she may repent her folly. The present friendship of America

may be of little moment to her; but the future destinies of that country do not admit of a doubt; over those of England there lower some shadows of uncertainty. Should, then, a day of gloom arrive; should these reverses overtake her, from which the proudest empires have not been exempt; she may look back with regret at her infatuation, in repulsing from her side a nation she might have grappled to her bosom, and thus destroying her only chance for real friendship beyond the boundaries of her own dominions.

There is a general impression in England, that the people of the United States are inimical to the parent country. It is one of the errors which have been diligently propagated by designing writers. There is, doubtless, considerable political hostility, and a general soreness at the illiberality of the English press; but, generally speaking, the prepossessions of the people are strongly in favor of England. Indeed, at one time, they amounted, in many parts of the Union to an absurd degree of bigotry. The bare name of Englishman was a passport to the confidence and hospitality of every family, and too ungrateful. Throughout the country there was something of enthusiasm connected with the idea of England. We looked to it with a hallowed feeling of tenderness and veneration, as the land of our forefathers—the august repository of the monuments and antiquities of our race—the birthplace and mausoleum of the sages and heroes of our paternal history. After our own country, there was none in whose glory we more delighted—none whose good opinion we were more anxious to possess—none toward which our hearts yearned with such throbbings of warm consanguinity. Even during the late war, whenever there was the least opportunity for kind feelings to spring forth, it was the delight of the generous spirits of our country to show that, in the midst of hostilities, they still kept alive the sparks of future friendship.

Is all this to be at an end? Is this golden band of kindred sympathies, so rare between nations, to be broken forever? Perhaps it is for the best—it may dispel an illusion

which might have kept us in mental vassalage; which might have interfered occasionally with our true interests, and prevented the growth of proper national pride. But it is too hard to give up the kindred tie! and there are feelings dearer than interest—closer to the heart than pride—that will make us cast back a look of regret, as we wander farther and farther from the parental roof, and lament the waywardness of the parent that would repel the affections of the child.

Short-sighted and injudicious, however, as the conduct of England may be in this system of aspersion, recrimination on our part would be equally ill-judged. I speak not of a prompt and spirited vindication of our country, nor the keenest castigation of her slanderers—but I allude to a disposition to retaliate in kind; to retort sarcasm, and inspire prejudice; which seems to be spreading widely among our writers. Let us guard particularly against such a temper, for it would double the evil instead of redressing the wrong. Nothing is so easy and inviting as the retort of abuse and sarcasm; but it is a paltry and an unprofitable contest. It is the alternative of a morbid mind, fretted into petulance, rather than warmed into indignation. If England is willing to permit the mean jealousies of trade, or the rancorous animosities of politics, to deprave the integrity of her press, and poison the fountain of public opinion let us beware of her example. She may deem it to her interest to diffuse error, and engender antipathy, for the purpose of checking emigration; we have no purpose of the kind to serve. Neither have we any spirit of national jealousy to gratify, for as yet, in all our rivalships with England, we are the rising and the gaining party. There can be no end to answer, therefore, but the gratification of resentment—a mere spirit of retaliation. . . .

The members of a republic, above all other men, should be candid and dispassionate. They are, individually, portions of the sovereign mind and sovereign will, and should be enabled to come to all questions of national concern with calm and unbiased judgments. From the peculiar nature

of our relations with England, we must have more frequent questions of a difficult and delicate character with her than with any other nation; questions that affect the most acute and excitable feelings; and as, in the adjusting of these, our national measures must ultimately be determined by popular sentiment, we cannot be too anxiously attentive to purify it from all latent passion or possession. . . .

What have we to do with national prejudices? They are the inveterate diseases of old countries, contracted in rude and ignorant ages, when nations knew but little of each other, and looked beyond their own boundaries with distrust and hostility. We, on the contrary, have sprung into national existence in an enlightened and philosophic age, when the different parts of the habitable world and the various branches of the human family, have been indefatigably studied and made known to each other; and we forego the advantages of our birth, if we do not shake off the national prejudice, as we would the local superstitions of the old world.

But above all let us not be influenced by any angry feelings, so far as to shut our eyes to the perception of what is really excellent and amiable in the English character. We are a young people, necessarily an imitative one, and must take our examples and models, in a great degree, from the existing nations of Europe. There is no country more worthy of our study than England. The spirit of her constitution is most analogous to ours. The manners of her people—their intellectual activity—their freedom of opinion—their habits of thinking on those subjects which concern the dearest interests and most sacred charities of private life, are all congenial to the American character; and, in fact, are all intrinsically excellent; for it is in the moral feeling of the people that the deep foundations of British prosperity are laid; and however the superstructure may be time-worn, or over-run by abuses, there must be something solid in the basis, admirable in the materials, and stable in the structure of an edifice, that so long has towered unshaken amidst the tempests of the world. . . .

A Song of the Tower of Babel*

A Silhouette of Life

By William Hard

WHERE are all the Irishmen?" I said to Father Stephen, and pointed toward the great mills which lie on the north bank of the Calumet River in South Chicago.

"Oh," said Father Stephen, "they have gone up. They are foremen and policemen and undertakers and they work in the stores."

"Where are the Americans?"

"I don't know," said Father Stephen. Father Stephen knows so much that he does not mind confessing when he does not know. He is in charge of St. John's parish. He is a baron. He calls himself a priest but he is a baron. South of the Calumet River he is the equivalent of three charity societies and sixty policemen.

"My people do the work now," said Father Stephen. "It is the Slovenians that they hire for laborers now. Slovenians. Nothing but Slovenians coming in. All from Austria and down in the way of Turkey. You can see them when they come in here, with the little caps on their heads and the long knives in their belts. But they do not use the knives if you treat them right."

We passed a man on the street. He was clearly a laborer, returning from the steel-works with his dinner-pail in his hand. Father Stephen waved his finger at the man. The man stopped.

"Belong to the Pope?" said Father Stephen.

The man shook his head.

"Holy Orthodox Church?" said Father Stephen.

The man nodded.

"Go along," said Father Stephen, "You don't belong to me."

The man raised his hand to his forehead and passed by.

*Reprinted from the July issue of *The World Today* through the courtesy of the editor.

"Servian," said Father Stephen. "Belongs to the Holy Orthodox Church. You know the church they have in Russia? Just like that. It is not the right religion but it is a good one. I would not bother him."

"Is he a Slovenian?" I said.

"Sure," said Father Stephen. "He is Slovenian. But he is also Servian. The Servians, they do not recognize the Pope. The other Slovenians, they belong to the Pope. Most of them. The ones from Carniola and Styria and Carinthia and Dalmatia and Istria and Montenegro, and from all those provinces down in the way of Turkey as you go from Vienna to the south and to the east when you are traveling through the peninsula of the Balkans on the way to ——"

Here Father Stephen interrupted himself. He had caught sight of another man on the street, another laborer.

"You belong to the Pope?" said Father Stephen.

The man stopped and nodded. He seemed to be slightly embarrassed.

"Yes?" said Father Stephen.

The man nodded again.

Father Stephen turned toward the steeple of St. John's.

"Tomorrow morning," he said, "you go there. Your church. Eight o'clock."

He said this in some Slovenian dialect (which is pronounced as if it were spelled Slovanian) and told me about it afterward.

"He belongs to the Pope," said Father Stephen. "He is Roman Catholic. He will be at my church tomorrow morning. But there are some fellows around here that are bad. They do not belong to the Pope and they do not belong to the Holy Orthodox Church of the Russians. They are not Christians at all."

Father Stephen looked at me with the expression of a man who has a deep secret in his mind.

"Every now in the while," said Father Stephen, "I find

a fellow on the street. I say to him: 'Belong to the Pope?' He say, 'No.' I say to him: 'Holy Orthodox Church?' He say, 'No.' I say to him: 'What are you?' He say, 'Musliman.' What you think of that?"

"That's right," I said. I've found them around here. Real Mohammedans. Right here in South Chicago. From Bosnia and Turkey. Right here in the United States. Pray on a carpet looking toward Mecca or Medina. I've seen them. You're right."

Father Stephen same close to me and laid his finger on my sleeve.

"They are the last," he said. "We have had English, and Irish, and Germans, and Norwegians, and Swedes, and Italians, and Poles, and Slovenians, but these Mohammedans, these Turks here in South Chicago, what will you do with them?"

"Oh, they will forget it," I said. "I have seen them around here. You can't tell them from anybody else unless you ask them. They will learn English."

"Ah!" said Father Stephen. "You are like all Americans. You do not care who comes here. You think you can take them all. But I tell you these fellows are not Christians. They are Mohammedans, Mussulmans. Three or four hundred of them in South Chicago. What will you do with them? They do not believe on Christ."

Father Stephen looked at me with his whole soul in his eyes.

"Well," I said, "perhaps you're right. You'd better convert them."

"I will," said Father Stephen. "I will." He had the fire of the missionary in his eyes now, the fire that sent Saint Boniface into the forests of eastern Europe twelve hundred years ago. It was a strange thing to see in South Chicago.

"I will," said Father Stephen. "When I see a man that belongs to the Holy Orthodox Church, I say, 'All

right.' But when I see a Mussulman from Bosnia or from Turkey I try to convert him. Is that all right?"

Before I could reply we had arrived in front of a fruit store kept by G. Sanapoulos.

"He is a Greek, the man in that place," said Father Stephen.

We went in.

"Try a lemonade," I said.

G. Sanapoulos brought our lemonades and set them down on a table just in front of a piano that he kept for the pleasure of his customers.

As we began to drink there came in a clean-built, clean-dressed young man with a smooth-shaven jaw. He sat down at the piano. The room was filled with Croatians, Servians, Montenegrins, Dalmatians, Styrians and all other sects and species of Slovenians.

"Play something," I said to the young man at the piano.

He smiled accommodately and ran his fingers over the keys with the touch of one who was accustomed to the task. Two or three times he cleared his throat. And then he began to sing. It was an echo of Ireland sounding over the mountains of Slovenia on Ninety-seventh street.

The harp that once through Tara's halls
The soul of music shed
Now hangs as mute on Tara's walls
As if that soul were fled.
So sleeps the pride of former days;
So glory's thrill is o'er;
And hearts that once beat high for praise
Now feel that pulse no more!

I rose from my seat and walked over to the young Irishman who had exorcised the soul of Ireland from the Greek piano in the Slovenian section of the Tower of Babel. I gave him my name and requested a similar confidence in return, pointing to Father Stephen as my letter of introduction.

"My name is Bragomovitch," said the young man.

I took hold of the piano.

The Tower of Babel

"What did you say?" I said.

"My name is Bragomovitch," said the young man.

"What are you?" I said.

"American," said he.

"So am I," I said. "What was your father?"

"Croatian."

"Glad to meet you," I said.

"My old foreman taught me that song," said the young man. "It's a fine song. I teach it to my boy. These fellows around here, just come over from Austria, they don't know nothing about it. But my old foreman, Pat Rohan, he taught it to me. Lots of the fellows on my street, they sing it now."

"Thank you," I said. "We're much obliged to you for your song. Won't you come and have a lemonade with us?"

Bragomovitch sipped his lemonade and talked.

"Those old songs," he said "take you back to the old country. Pat Rohan told me all about that song about the harp of Tara's halls. It was written in the old country a long time ago."

"There you are," said Father Stephen. "It's the language. I will give you the idea for what you will write. If when they had the Tower of Babel—you know the Tower of Babel? In the Bible?—if when they had the Tower of Babel, they also had songs and poetry and books, then would the Lord—would he have been able to scatter them all over by giving them all the different languages? Of course the Lord, he can do anything."

Father Stephen's face wore a resigned expression.

"But would He have been able to that?" he said.

"It would have been more difficult," I said judicially.

"Yes," said Father Stephen. "In twenty years this fellow's children, the children of this fellow here at the piano, they will think they used to own that harp on the walls of that town called Toro."

"Tara," I said reverently.

"It makes no difference," said Father Stephen. "In twenty years all these fellows will be what the papers call Americanized. They will all be Irish. They will be what their foremen are now."

"Who will take their places?" I said.

"I don't know," said Father Stephen. "Perhaps these Mussulmans. There is nobody else farther down in the Balkan Mountains on the way south in Slovenia. I will convert them and Brogomovitch will teach them about Tora's harp."

Father Stephen smiled happily and benignly.

"It's lucky," I said, "that the Irish learned to talk the English language before they came over here.

"Yes," said Father Stephen, "if the Irish talked a language of their own it would take two or three hundred years longer to make America."

Bragomovitch left the table and went over to the piano. He was inspired by our appreciation.

No more to chiefs and ladies bright
The harp of Tara swells;
The chord alone that breaks at night
Its tale of ruin tells.
Thus Freedom now so seldom wakes,
The only throb she gives
Is when some heart indignant breaks
To show that still she lives.

Bragomovitch's indignant heart seemed breaking as he sang.



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A LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT OF 1908.

The Class of 1908 was deprived of the presence of its president at Chautauqua last summer, his engagements taking him to some of the Western Assemblies, but his interest in the affairs of 1908 is no less active and in accordance with the wish of the class he and Mrs. Schmucker have agreed to serve on the banner committee and see that an appropriate standard is ready for next summer. Members of the Class at Chautauqua agreed that some special poem of Tennyson's should be designated as the class poem and in accordance with Dr. Schmucker's suggestion, the matter will be referred to competent judges, and announcement made through the Round Table. The following letter was written by Dr. Schmucker during the summer from the Lithia Springs Chautauqua to the secretary of the Class at Chautauqua:

"My Dear Miss Ford:

Your letter of August 5, 1907, with its enclosure, after going first to my home and then to the University of Chicago is with me here. This is a beautiful rift in the prairie in Southern Illinois where a stream has gouged out a valley just big enough to shelter a pleasant Chautauqua. It is one of the Chautauquas in which Recognition Day is the climax of the session, and this is Recognition Day. As for a poem from Tennyson as a part of our

Recognition services, it seems eminently fitting. I am away in the woods and from memory would not like to suggest a selection. Can you not have an expert suggest the most fitting poem, before



Prof. Samuel C. Schmucker,
President of the Class of 1908.

the class adjourns for the year? Then let it sometime be printed in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Perhaps many of us would take pride in knowing it heartily so that we could repeat it without the copy—when the rest read it from the Recognition leaflet. So it may become a truly ennobling factor in our lives—and this is the great beauty of Chautauqua.

I trust you can read this. I am propped up against a stump with my knees braced against a tree. The locusts are singing all about. Near by, a squirrel is scurrying up and down the trunks. A pair of wood pewees are calling to each other and their conversation is constantly interrupted by a very impudent and high strung wren. Black-eyed Susan peeps at me from behind a fallen tree while out through an opening in the trees I see the boundless prairie—"and every common bush afire with God."

Very truly yours,

S. C. SCHMUCKER.

A CALIFORNIA CIRCLE'S RECOGNITION DAY.

Among the graduates of 1907 who were unable to come to Chautauqua for Recognition Day, were the members of the Columbia Circle of Santa Clara, California. Thereupon they decided to celebrate their graduation at home as seemed most fitting. They were the fortunate possessors



Graduating Class of '07, Columbia Circle, Santa Clara, California



Henry Wadsworth Longfellow



Home of Missionary at Efulen, West Coast of Africa.

of a class banner, an artistic standard of white satin, made for them by a member of 1908, a fact which gave it a certain added charm. On the banner were embroidered the class name, motto and year, the sprays of salvia supplying a touch of patriotic color, the emblem of the "Washington" class. Secure in this evidence of class loyalty, these Chautauquans could proceed quite freely to graduating bouquets and even sheepskin diplomas of their own creation! The celebration, as may be imagined, was a great success. It was held in June at the home of Mrs. Morse, "Palmhurst," where red gladiolias, salvia, and geraniums made the parlors quite radiant with the class color. The literary program took the form of a travel club, essays reviewing the four years' course being interspersed with musical selections, German, English, and Italian. The class history by Mrs. Eva Birge, and the circle prophecy by Mrs. Lucy Higgins, were full of clever allusions and upon the

readers of essays bouquets were bestowed in the conventional graduation fashion. The president, Mrs. Herrington, presented the diplomas. They were of sheepskin, eight by ten inches, the presence of the wool on one side being incontestible evidence of their genuineness. In the absence of flower girls, each graduate received a small splint basket containing flowers cut from vegetables which seemed to suggest that beauty and utility may be closely related and hence culture and character! Then the graduates were photographed for themselves and for the Round Table and made merry with their friends during the social hour which followed.



THE C. L. S. C. ON THE WEST COAST OF AFRICA.

If one could "line up" in a row the various types of habitat in which the C. L. S. C. has flourished, what a surprising collection they would make. Beautiful homes in city and country, plain little dwellings in isolated communities, the tent of the soldier, the cabin on the man of war, the prairie schooner all would have their place. The latest in this notable collection is a missionary's house at Efulen on the West Coast of Africa shown in our illustration. Here for four years past, a member of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1907, Mrs. A. G. Adams, has freshened her mind and spirit by keeping in touch with the Chautauqua brotherhood across the sea. This summer, Mrs. Adams and her husband came to Chautauqua, she to graduate with her class and he to pass through the Golden Gate for he was enrolled quite in his boyhood in the class of 1887. He writes of his Chautauqua experience:

"Never during the twenty-four years since that time have I lost interest in the course. Successively a school boy, a college undergraduate, a teacher, an editor and during the past five years a missionary on the West Coast of Africa I have continued a loyal Chautauquan. Year by year the regular course has never failed to prove so inviting that I have continued the readings without a break. Though the ground has been gone over again and again there have always been some new methods of treatment, some special features of special interest for the graduates. The specialized

courses and suggestions for outside reading afford a wide range for more and more thorough study of the ground gone over. The visit to Chautauqua this summer and the passing through the Golden Gate postponed for twenty years will furnish memories that will never be forgotten and inspiration for more and better work during the years to come."

THE LONGFELLOW CLASS.

The patron saint of the Class of 1911 is the poet Longfellow. So many possibilities for a motto and an emblem associated with the poet suggested themselves to the Class this summer that, as noted in the last Round Table, the members decided to work out a plan during the year, so that all members everywhere might make suggestions. Diligent researches in Longfellow lore will now be the portion of every member of 1911. New circles composed entirely of members of this class might assign one or more poems to each member at each meeting to read at home and report upon at the next meeting. Such reports could take the form of a brief statement of the nature of the poem and what, if any, suggestions it seemed to offer for a motto or emblem. In this way quite an extended survey of the poet's work would be made, and each member would find pleasure in personal acquaintance with many of the poems. To one member the privilege of reading Longfellow's life might be assigned. The standard biography is of course that written by the poet's brother, Samuel Longfellow. The Longfellow centenary a year ago brought out many interesting facts relating to him.



Individual readers will often find it an advantage to read over the suggestive programs for local circles, as references are given to books or magazine articles which are particularly timely in connection with the month's reading.

The Class of '83 are making plans for a reunion next year to celebrate their twenty-fifth anniversary. All members are invited to send their present addresses to the Class Secretary, Miss Ann C. Hitchcock, Burton, Ohio; also to notify her of the whereabouts of other members, who may not have been to Chautauqua recently and so kept in touch with the Class.

POETRY FOR CHILDREN.

Fortunate are the young people of today who have opened to them through numerous delightful collections of poetry the splendid world of romance and adventure, of gentle humor, of fairy song, of fancy, and of nature's mysteries as they have been interpreted for hundreds of years by countless poets.

A book of rare charm which ought to be in every home where there are children and youth is "Golden Numbers" (McClure, Phillips & Co., \$2.00 net) edited by those lovers of literature, Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora Archibald Smith. This alluring volume draws upon the resources of more than one hundred and fifty of the English speaking poets. The introduction "On the Reading of Poetry" is in itself most suggestive to children as well as to their elders who also are more than likely to be led captive by this collection. The method of grouping the poems is an indication of the riches thus included. Some of these group titles are: "A Chanted Calendar," "The World Beautiful," "Green Things Growing," "On the Wing," "Fairy Songs and Songs of Fancy," "A Garden of Girls," "For Home and Country," "In Merry Mood," "Story Poems, Romance and Reality," "Life Lessons," etc.

In the same series (McClure's Library of Children's Classics) is a volume for younger children entitled "The Posy Ring" (\$1.25 net). It contains many of the old nursery favorites and a goodly number from the later poets. The child trained on "The Posy Ring" will come quite naturally to "Golden Numbers."

A quaint little volume is Samuel Eliot's "Poetry for Children" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 80 cents net). The collection was made more than twenty years ago, but the selections were classics and the book contains in small compass poems suited to children of all ages under twelve. Many a child will find the old fashioned illustrations no small part of the charm of this collection which has been a favorite in countless households for a quarter of a century.

The "Heart of Oak Books" edited by Charles Eliot Norton (Heath & Co., seven volumes 25 to 60 cents) are a most important contribution to the resources of parents and teachers who are guiding the reading of children. These seven volumes were prepared as readers for school children, designed not merely to teach them to read, but to cultivate their taste as well. Famous stories, narratives, and poems have been gathered together in this series, edited and illustrated so that in successive volumes appear the best of the Mother Goose classics, famous nursery stories, fairy tales, narratives and poems. The illustrations are particularly fine, many of them being reproductions of historic paintings or of the work of eminent illustrators.

C. L. S. C. Round Table

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

*"We study the Word and the Works of God."
 "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
 "Never be Discouraged."*

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.	INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.	INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.	ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.	RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.	
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.	
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.	
ADDISON DAY—May 1.	



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR DECEMBER.

FIRST WEEK—NOVEMBER 26—DECEMBER 3.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us." Chapter V. Some Other Peculiarities.

In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America." Chapter VIII. Politics.

SECOND WEEK—DECEMBER 3—DECEMBER 10.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "As Others See Us." Chapter VI. American Sensitiveness.

In Required Book: "Races and Immigrants in America." Chapter IX. Amalgamation and Assimilation.

THIRD WEEK—DECEMBER 10-17.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "American Painting," Article III. Years of Preliminary Growth.

In Required Book: American Literature, Chapter I. The Early Colonial Period

FOURTH WEEK—DECEMBER 17-24.

In Required Book: American Literature, Chapter II. The Revolutionary Period.

FIFTH WEEK—DECEMBER 24-31, VACATION.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

In the study of American Literature readers are reminded of the excellent suggestions by Miss Bates in the Appendix to our required book, where she gives a large number of sources from which selections may be made. In a community without extensive library facilities much may be done if the program committee can look over the available material and plan their programs accordingly. (See further suggestions in the Round Table.)

Discussion of Chapter V. in "As Others See Us," taking up the qualities ascribed to us and determining (1) whether they are peculiar to Americans; (2) whether if objectionable they are the weak side of strong qualities and therefore worthy of some tolerance; (3) If objectionable what can be done to make ourselves more prepossessing; (4) If the qualities are good ones, in what respects they may become sources of danger?

Book Review: "The Land of Contrasts," Muirhead, or "American Traits" by Professor Hugo Münsterberg.

Roll Call: Answered by stating what seems to each member the most important question discussed in the Chapter on "Politics" and why.

Paper: The Initiative and Referendum (See encyclopedia).

Oral Reports: Belgium System of Representation—See *Review of Reviews*, May, 1900; Points brought out by President Eliot in his article on "City Government by Fewer Men" in *World's Work* for October, 1907; Similar report on article in the *Century Magazine* for October, 1907, on "The Des Moines Plan."

Reading: Urgency of Improved Steerage Conditions. (See article by Kellogg Durland in this magazine).

SECOND WEEK.

Roll Call: Paragraphs in "Highways and Byways."

Discussion of Chapter VI. in "As Others See Us."

Oral Report: "A School for Training in Welfare Work." (See circulars of the New York School of Philanthropy with announcements of their courses, study classes, etc. These can be secured from the Office of the School, Fourth Avenue and 22d street, New York City).

Review of Article on "Causes of Race Superiority" by Edward A. Ross, in *Annals of the American Academy*, Vol. 18, July, '01. (This publication may not be accessible to many circles, but those who have college or other libraries will find it interesting to have some one sum up the points made by Professor Ross.)

Reading: Selection from "Charities," May 5, 1904, on "Agricultural Possibilities of Italian Immigration;" May 4, 1907, on "America Raising Europe's Standard of Living;" Feb. 16, 1907, page 890, several short articles on the education of the adult immigrant.

Oral Report: How the railroads encourage distribution of population. (See "The Arkansas Homestead" published by the "Iron Mountain" Road, St. Louis, Mo.; "The Southern Field," published by the Southern Railway, Atlanta, Ga., or Washington, D. C.; "The Western Trail," Rock Island Railway, St. Louis, Mo.—sample copies of these publications can be secured.)

Paper: Educational and religious opportunities for the foreigner in the Circle's own community.

Debate: Resolved that the educational test should not be applied to immigrants.

THIRD WEEK.

Reading: Selections from available books on Old New England Customs.

Recitations: "On Lending a Punch Bowl," "Song for Centennial Celebration of Harvard." O. W. Holmes.

Readings from Puritan Poetry: "The Day of Doom," Wigglesworth, or from the writings of Anne Bradstreet, and from Samuel Sewall's Diary. (See Library Shelf in December, 1907, CHAUTAUQUAN.)

Paper: Jonathan Edwards.

Reading: Selections from his works. (See Library Shelf in December, 1907, CHAUTAUQUAN.)

Roll Call: Quotations from hymns in modern use which express the spirit of the old New England Theology.

Recitation from Whittier's Colonial Ballads: The Garrison of Cape Ann; the Swan Song of Parson Avery. The Prophecy of Samuel Sewall; The Witch of Wenham.

Brief Report: The character of religious thinking in England, France and Germany in the times of Mather and Edwards. See works on English and French history and literature relating to this period.

Book Review: Agnes Surriage, by Edwin Lasseter Bynner.

Discussion of Article and Pictures on American Paintings.

FOURTH WEEK.

For this program reviewing the Revolutionary period, the Circle might divide itself into groups,—the first group arranging a program covering the three great personalities of Franklin, Jefferson and Hamilton. A second group could select such poetry as seemed available or desirable to present at the meeting, as best expressing the Revolutionary period avoiding, except by allusion, the well known works and trying to bring out others less familiar but equally typical. A third group should look up the beginnings of the novel in New England. To one member of the Circle might be delegated a map review showing the influence of geographic conditions at this time. The appendix to Miss Bates' book gives so many definite references that these will not be repeated here as each Circle will have to work according to the resources at its command.

Papers: Franklin as an Inventor and Practical Man; His Political Career; Franklin as a Writer and the Founder of a Library; His Personal Character.

Debate: Resolved that the influence of Hamilton was more important in the development of the country than that of Jefferson.

Readings: Recitations and brief papers by the "Poetry Group."

Map Review of Geographic conditions at the time of the Revolution. (See Chapter I-V. of Miss Semple's American History and its Geographic Conditions, also Geographic Influences in American History, Brigham.)

Readings: Brief papers by the "Novelist Group."

Roll Call: Quotations by members appropriate to the groups which they represent.



ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ON NOVEMBER READINGS.

1. In 1842 and in 1867-8. 2. 1852-3 and 1854-5 "The Virginians;" "Mr. Thackeray in the United States" in his "Miscellaneous Sketches." 3. He spoke feelingly of the cordial reception accorded him on his second visit despite the earlier criticism of "Martin Chuzzlewit." He also commented upon the great improvement

in American conditions during the quarter century which had elapsed since his first visit. 4. As a battle not comparable. Important as the first decisive blow in the Spanish war which ultimately gave the United States the control of the Philippines. 5. General Grant said that the Mexican War was "one of the most unjust ever waged by a stronger against a weaker nation."

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "AS OTHERS SEE US."

CHAPTER V.—SOME OTHER PECULIARITIES.

1. What are some of the "frailties" which our French critics have detected in us? 2. What tendencies to snobbery do we manifest? 3. What impulses to excess do we show? 4. What faith in quackery do we exhibit? 5. Show how some of these criticisms are merely human and race frailties. 6. What are the better aspects of our "curiosity" and our attitude toward "cranks?" 7. What fundamental truth was touched upon by the Englishman who criticized our wooden houses? 8. Illustrate Lowell's remark "the divine patience of my fellow countrymen." 9. What reasons may be given for our indifference to public evils? 10. How may our very democracy tend to check free discussion?

CHAPTER VI.—AMERICAN SENSITIVENESS.

1. What famous visitors felt the effects of our "self-consciousness" in the last century? 2. Why did Paul Bourget call us "touchy?" 3. Describe the attitude of America toward England up to the forties. 4. What differences between profession and practise were noted by our critics at this time? 5. What were the characteristics of Miss Martineau's volume? 6. By what means since that time have we been "steadied and disciplined as a nation?" 7. What changes did Mr. Bryce note in his successive visits?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. Who is Professor Münsterberg and what has he written? 2. For what purpose did de Tocqueville visit America? 3. What is the character of the writings of DeAmicis? 4. Upon what varied subjects did Frederika Bremer write? 5. What connection had Captain Marryat with Napoleon? 6. What positions of influence did Jared Sparks hold? 7. Who is Paul Bourget?

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

As Pendragon called the delegates to order he scrutinized with much interest a heterogeneous collection of drawings which was scattered over the Round Table. "We've been following your suggestion," explained a delegate, "and making charts of our towns showing the location and extent of the foreign populations. Most of the charts are not finished yet, but we wanted to improve this opportunity to get points from each other." "We are certainly indebted to these enterprising delegates," said Pendragon, "and at the close of the Round Table, if the owners of the charts will linger a moment, others who have not yet followed up this idea may be glad to consult them. Trying experiments is the best possible way of stimulating our originality and lifting us out of the commonplace." "I should judge," laughed a delegate from Massachusetts, "that as Americans, we would better make the most of what seems to be our national virtue of experimentation for according to Mr. Brooks' article this month, we need a good many such virtues to offset the qualities which seem to get on the nerves of our foreign visitors!" "Which reminds me," remarked Pendragon, "that some of you may like to run over an article in the October *Atlantic* by Mr. Muirhead on 'Some Recent Books on the United States.'" "You remember," he continued, "that at our Library Round Table in September we spoke of the efforts of a country store keeper in New York State to encourage the reading habit in that community. You'll be glad to know that I've had letters from Vermont and Ohio asking for the address of this reader, with the assurance that some useful and interesting books will soon be sent to her."

"I suppose it's quite proper," said the delegate from Chautauqua, New York, "that I should report first today as you will all want to be assured that the Bryant Bell was rung and the C. L. S. C. reading year duly inaugurated on October 1. We really had a famous celebration and feel much indebted to the committee who made all the arrangements so effectively. Beside the members of the 'A. M. Martin' and 'S. H. G.' organizations at Chautauqua, delegates came to us from the 'Plus Ultra' and 'Stoddard' Circles of Jamestown and the 'Pioneer' Circle of Westfield. At precisely 12 o'clock, we all laid hold of the long bell rope and the Bryant Bell responded with the alacrity and vim of a veteran who has rung in the C. L. S. C. year since 1878. A brief responsive service, the recitation of the C. L. S. C. mottoes and the singing of two familiar Chautauqua hymns followed the ringing of the bell, and I assure you that the winds rustling the leaves and the waves

lapping on the beach formed an accompaniment that was quite adequate to the occasion.

"The banquet which followed was held in the upper room of the Colonnade. Miss Hazen, one of our local artists, had loaned a charming collection of paintings for the decoration of the Hall, and these, with masses of brilliant flowers, napkins in autumn-leaf designs and other little touches, gave the place a holiday air. Chautauqua, as perhaps you know, is in the grape country, and some of the delegates brought with them quantities of grapes and other fruit, which added greatly to the artistic effect. Mr. F. C. Bray, editor of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, was toast master and supplied those happy little comments which make such an occasion go off well. Mr. A. E. Bestor, Assistant General Director of Chautauqua, spoke on 'Why an American Year.' I can't take time here to give you even a synopsis of the addresses, but you will fill in the gaps for yourselves. Miss Josephine Moses of Jamestown, who was asked to speak on 'Races and Immigrants in Jamestown,' showed what a chance the Jamestown Chautauquans have to study the Albanian race without going to Greece. Dr. S. Hamilton Day, the newly appointed pastor at Chautauqua, gave his experience of the C. L. S. C. in church life. Mrs. Grace Livingston Lutz read a charming original poem. Mrs. A. H. Hatch, representing the 'Plus Ultra' Circle of Jamestown, responded to the toast 'Education Ends Only with Life.' Mrs. J. L. White of the Pioneer Circle of Westfield told of past work and 'present expectations,' and Dr. W. H. Hickman, President of the Chautauqua Board of Trustees, reminded those present of the significance of the center of the C. L. S. C.—the Hall of Philosophy. Mr. E. H. Blichfeldt, representing the Extension work of the Institution, alluded to the advantage which the home office gains through friendly coöperation and practical suggestions from Circles. The roll of the C. L. S. C. classes was called, showing that most of the undergraduate and all of the graduate classes except '88 and '97 were represented. It really was a great occasion and we hope another year to extend its influence even more widely."



"Now that we are well started on the new year," said Pen-dragon, "we can afford to be somewhat reminiscent for there are some good things left over from last year which we really cannot dispense with. You will recall the suggestion in the May Round Table that the play of 'Cranford' might be given as a closing program for the year. The Mt. Sterling, Kentucky, Chautauquans planned to give the play for the benefit of their local library, but

the intensely hot weather led them to defer it until autumn, so we shall hope later to hear of their achievements. Meanwhile we are fortunate in having with us a delegate from the circle at Humboldt, Iowa, which gave the play with the happiest results."

"We are still talking about the event," responded the delegate, Mrs. White. "So if I become too enthusiastic and keep on indefinitely, I shall depend upon you to call me to order. We saw the suggestion in one of THE CHAUTAUQUANS, sent for the play and found that there were just enough ladies in our Circle to take the parts. The gentlemen acted as critics, and helped in a great many practical ways. We did not consider the play pretentious enough to be given in the town opera house, so built out the pulpit of one of the churches for a stage. We sent invitations to all who we thought would be interested and charged twenty-five cents for tickets. The performance was given early in June. Our ministerial member made a very neat little curtain talk introducing the play and summarizing the English year of work we had just completed. Everything went smoothly with the exception of one very unfortunate occurrence. The 'Hon Mrs. Jamieson' fell just outside of the church before the performance, breaking her hip. That nearly put an end to 'Cranford' for us all, but it did seem as if we had worked too hard to abandon it, so the 'troupe' braced up, 'Martha' was hurriedly coached, and took Mrs. Jamieson's part very nicely. We had worked out the settings and costumes with the feminine love for detail and rather flattered ourselves that the sight of our costumes alone was worth the admission fee:—big poke bonnets, hoop skirts, old, old shawls and mantillas, ancient gowns of every description—we scorned anything younger than twenty years. The stage looked very cozy and home-like. 'Miss Matty' served real tea in real old fashioned cups and at 'Miss Betty's' party we ate truly oysters with truly antique ivory-handled forks, and had veritable old-time decanters for the make-believe cherry brandy.

"The 'Hon Mrs. Jamieson's' 'Carlo' was as well-behaved as ever a Cranford dog could be, and ate his dish of real cream with the proper unction. We had ransacked the town for old time chairs, tables, pictures, hair-cloth sofa, etc., with shining success. The gem of the collection was a little old melodeon, the operation of which quite convulsed the audience, as the player must needs fairly dance upon the pedals, and those keys which did not stick nearly drowned the melody with their rattling.

"I must not tire you or I would tell you how 'Miss Matty' weighed her tea with steel-yards, and tied it up with brown paper

and cotton thread, how the 'troupe' wore out her 'paper path' rehearsing on it, how the children who patronized her store devoured all the rock candy and gum drops at dress rehearsal; or how quaint and fetching these same children were in their mamma's and grand-ma's baby dresses.

"But to conclude, it really was a success, and oh such lots of fun! Our receipts were \$52 and with the proceeds we voted to purchase a bronze bust of Shakespeare for our new Carnegie library, and also the Chautauqua books we had just studied. As the library is as yet a hole in the ground, the bust has not been presented! This season we plan to give another play, one that will be appropriate for the American Year. Our circle is small but enthusiastic, and we enjoy the work immensely."

The Round Table was so electrified by Mrs. White's racy account of the Humboldt 'dramatics' that stage whispers could be heard on every side asking for suitable American plays. "We will publish a list of these in an early number of the Round Table," said Pendragon, "so that you can consider the possibilities in ample time. 'Cranford' is really a work of genius and having set our standard very high we shall need to keep it up. Now you must have a word from the Crystal Circle of Vacaville, California. The San Jose circle has already shown what Californians can do in celebrating the close of the four years. These Vacaville Chautauquans are just a year old."



The delegate reported an enthusiastic membership of thirty: "Whether our name may be considered indicative of the brilliance of our members or not," she said, "all of the assigned subjects were pretty thoroughly discussed and enjoyed. Shakespeare was resurrected and submitted to keen criticism mostly kindly but occasionally severe. English Government was well thrashed out and in an animated debate the House of Lords was abolished by an overwhelming majority! The beauty of thought and exquisite diction of the various poets and also those of the author of Literary Leaders called forth many expressions of delight and eulogy, while 'Rational Living' evoked much lively and helpful discussion. During the course we were favored with a visit from Professor Joy who gave us an afternoon talk on 'Painters and Painting,' and a lecture the same evening on 'The Poetry of Art,' both of which were much enjoyed. So anxious were the members to make a good beginning next year that officers were elected at our last meeting for the coming season. It has also been arranged to give a Lyceum

course of lectures and music through the winter months so Chautauqua will mean something to the townsfolk generally."

"This is pleasant indication of public spirit," commented Pendragon. "Dr. Hale long ago pointed out to the Lend-a-Hand clubs that the best life of a club came from doing something for some one else. Culture and Service seem to link themselves together very naturally. And now before we close our session, I must introduce another of our year old members, Mr. Hans Sabo of Kirkebo, Norway." The Round Table gave the Chautauqua salute to their foreign delegate, who apologized for his hesitating manner. "It is yet very difficult to me," he said, "to use the English language."

"Two years ago I closed at the lower grammar school at the age of sixteen; but just as I was about to go to the higher grammar school my father, who was a teacher, got ill, and it must be given up. So I for two years, 1905-6, taught in my father's school and besides read the books of the higher grammar school. By the end of 1905 I, from Mr. Olav Madshus, heard of the C. L. S. C. and in September, 1906, I began the readings of the English year. Six hours of the day I taught in the school and in the evening I did my readings. But as I had read 'What is Shakespeare' and 'The English Government' I got ill and from new year, 1907, till June I could hardly read a letter. Now I have closed the readings of this year, and I am very glad to have done so. I will never regret it. The books and magazine articles were very interesting, especially of the books, 'Rational Living' and the 'Literary Leaders' and of the articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 'Imperial England' and 'Men of Fame.' As I this winter have nothing special to do I, beside the reading of the course 1907-8, will repeat some of the books 1906-7."



"As this is a retrospective program," said Pendragon, "we will let the Des Moines Chautauquans close the Round Table." The president of the S. H. G., Mrs. Field, then reported on the work of their Alumni organization. "We have some seventy members," she said, "and have had most delightful meetings. In April we had an address on Oxford by Miss Perkins who had been a student in the summer school of that University, and other programs upon the English Reading Journey have been quite a revelation to us of the charms of English life and associations. The Des Moines Chautauqua Union is another large body of Chautauquans with an attendance of over sixty members. This is an attempt to bring the various Circles together once a month for lectures or other exercises tending to create added interest in Chautauqua

work. You will see from the following program what the topics were last year.

October 26th—Home of Mrs. F. L. Kern.

Reception to all Chautauquans and friends.

Hostesses—Officers of the Union.

November 23rd, 2:30 P. M.—Home of Mrs. W. H. Jackson.

Music.

Lecture on Dickens—Mrs. A. B. Shipley.

Social Hour.

December 15th, 7:30 P. M.—Home of Mrs. Lydia Frank.

Shakespearean Program.

Dramatic and Musical in charge of Mrs. Frank.

January 25th, 2:30 P. M.—Home of Mrs. A. B. Stockdale.

Music.

Talk on English Art—John Shipley of the University of Chicago.

Social Hour.

February 15th, 2:30 P. M.—Home of Mrs. Dr. S. S. Still.

The Theater in Shakespeare's Time—Field Circle.

The Greek Drama and Shakespeare compared—Mrs. J. E. Spalding.

Shakespeare as a moral Teacher—Mrs. C. E. Brown.

The Supernatural in Shakespeare—Mrs. C. E. Tullis.

Shakespeare's Fools—Miss Estelle Penn.

Shakespeare's Heroines—Mrs. Haupt.

Shakespeare's Heroes—Mrs. Heath.

Living Pictures.

March 22nd, 2:30 P. M.—Home of Mrs. A. E. Shipley.

English Tea—Talk by Mrs. Macomber on Life in England.

April 26th, 8:00 P. M.—K. P. Hall.

Tennyson's Princess to be played by the Chautauquans, in charge of Mrs. B. E. Oberman.

May 24th, 7:00 P. M.—Savoy Hotel.

Banquet for all Chautauquans and their friends. Toasts.

May 29th, 2:30 P. M.—Y. W. C. A. Rooms.

Report of Officers.

Election of Officers.

"I may add," said Pendragon, "that 'clipping' reports of the Eaton Circle of Des Moines showed that they were doing serious work, the Victoria Circle very active, and the members of the Vincent who studied Shakespeare all the year made the departure of one of their members for California an occasion for developing a very unique program. The guests were entertained by Miss Genevieve Otis, who utilized California products in the decorations of the table—shells from the Pacific, etc., and arranged a literary program in which the works of noted Californians were brought out."

Reports From Other Assemblies.

PACIFIC GROVE CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY, PACIFIC GROVE, CAL.

Sixteen C. L. S. C. members graduated on Recognition Day at the Pacific Grove Assembly. The address was given by the Rev. W. C. Evans, president of the Assembly. Round Tables were conducted by Prof. Keep, Rev. W. C. Evans, Mrs. Dawson. Many literary lectures, a strong program, and work in various educational departments helped to emphasize the cultural activities of the Assembly.

PIASA CHAUTAUQUA, ILLINOIS.

The 24th annual program of the Piasa Chautauqua Assembly was held for six weeks this year—an extension of two weeks over previous years. The program was the best ever put on but on account of poor transportation conditions and very bad weather the attendance of day visitors was not up to the usual number. The season ticket sales were larger than before. H. L. Herbert spoke on Recognition Day. The best drawing days were those when the speakers were W. J. Bryan, Senator W. E. Mason, Senator R. L. Taylor and Senator R. M. LaFollette.

ILLINOIS STATE EPWORTH LEAGUE CHAUTAUQUA, HAYANA, ILLINOIS.

The first session of this Chautauqua was highly successful. Recognition Day was August 7, the speaker, Governor Charles S. Deneen. There were twelve graduates. Mrs. C. M. Morrell conducted the C. L. S. C. Round Tables.

LINCOLN CHAUTAUQUA, LINCOLN, ILLINOIS.

The Lincoln Chautauqua had a successful season financially in spite of unfavorable weather, which greatly reduced the number of campers and dampened their enthusiasm during the first part of the session. Conditions improved toward the last however, and the assembly closed very satisfactorily. The advance sale of season tickets for 1908 was almost 2,400, thus insuring financial success next year. Dr. D. W. Howell of Hartford, Conn., was present for a week and conducted Round Tables, also delivering his lecture, "A Lad o' Pairts." Some ten readers have been enrolled for the coming year.

LITHIA SPRINGS CHAUTAUQUA, SHELBY COUNTY, ILLINOIS.

The Recognition Day address at Lithia Springs Chautauqua was given by the Rev. D. W. Howell, D. D. Diplomas were granted to eight persons and the usual C. L. S. C. graduation program was followed. The services of the day were concluded by a banquet given by the C. L. S. C. Alumni at which about seventy-five persons were present. Miss Hopkins, president of the Alumni Association, presided. A large number of C. L. S. C. students of the class of 1911 were enrolled at this Chautauqua. The educational features were emphasized and a number of excellent instructors had charge of the various departments. On the two closing days of the Assembly a congress of religions was held, at which the Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones of Chicago presided.

ROCK RIVER ASSEMBLY, DIXON, ILLINOIS.

The C. L. S. C. Round Tables were conducted by Mrs. Charles E. Risser of Des Moines, Iowa. Her subjects were: "The Growth and Development of Chautauqua Work," "Some American Traits," "The Immigration Question," "The Making of an Ideal," "Father

Marquette," "The Value of Good Literature." The Recognition Day address on August 9 was delivered by Prof. V. G. A. Tressler, D. D.

FOUNTAIN PARK CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY, REMINGTON, INDIANA.

The C. L. S. C. Round Tables at the Fountain Park Assembly conducted by Mrs. Charles E. Risser of Des Moines, attracted large and interested audiences. The subjects discussed were: "What the English Year Has Done for Me," "Lessons from Our English Poets," "The New South," "Races and Immigrants," "Longfellow," "Hoosier Schoolmaster," and "Protection of Children." This year for the first time a Recognition Day was observed, six graduates passing through the Golden Gate. The procession was a feature of the summer's program. Prof. Follansbee delivered the address. It is the intention of the management to emphasize more and more the C. L. S. C. reading course, a feature of the summer's work, and make the Fountain Park Chautauqua Assembly a headquarters for graduation.

THE CLARINDA CHAUTAUQUA, CLARINDA, IOWA.

The 1907 Assembly of the Clarinda Chautauqua was the most successful of any yet held. The attendance was greater than ever before and the Chautauqua spirit better. Eight Round Tables were held in the C. L. S. C. department, one devoted entirely to the benefits of the reading course, one to next year, and the others to educational themes. Miss Clara B. Willis had charge of the C. L. S. C. work and Mrs. Powers was the Recognition Day speaker. A considerable number of readers were enrolled for the reading course and the educational departments of literature, bible, music, and physical culture were more popular than ever before.

CRESTON, IOWA.

There were three C. L. S. C. graduates at Creston, Iowa. They were Mrs. Ira C. Burkheimer, Mrs. John McGrath, Mrs. H. D. Royce. The graduating program was exceptionally fine. At the conclusion of the program, the Chautauqua society gave a banquet in the big tent to the graduates. Forty ladies were present.

SHENANDOAH CHAUTAUQUA, IOWA.

At the first session of the Shenandoah Assembly Mrs. Charles E. Risser of Des Moines conducted Round Tables upon the following subjects: "What the Reading Course Stands For: Its Advantages," "Why we Should Study the Poets," "The New South," "The Immigrants," "The Writers of the Middle West," "Synopsis of Course." It is the intention of the management to emphasize the C. L. S. C. reading course.

COFFEYVILLE CHAUTAUQUA, KANSAS.

Meddie Ovington Hamilton of Kansas City, superintendent of the C. L. S. C. and literature departments devoted her attention to the study of American and English literature. One hundred and two C. L. S. C. members were enrolled. The Recognition Day address was given by Bishop Vincent to a class of five graduates. Successful work was conducted in various educational

Reports From Other Assemblies

departments. The officers for the coming year are: President, Mr. S. L. Frayners; Secretary, Prof. R. Y. Kennedy; Manager and Superintendent, Rev. C. S. Nusbaum.

LINCOLN PARK ASSEMBLY, CAWKER CITY, KANSAS.

The Lincoln Park Assembly held its most successful session in five years, drawing a large attendance of cultured people. Successful educational work was conducted in a number of departments. Meddie Ovington Hamilton of Kansas City, the superintendent of the C. L. S. C. conducted the departments of literature and C. L. S. C. The enrollment was 140. Bishop Vincent of Chautauqua Institution, New York, gave the Recognition Day address to the eight graduates and was later the guest of honor at the C. L. S. C. banquet. Mr. H. H. Welty of Downs, was elected president, Rev. E. L. Huckell of Cawker City, secretary.

ARKANSAS VALLEY CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY, STERLING, KANSAS.

The Arkansas Valley Chautauqua held its first session in July. The enthusiasm shown marks the establishment of a permanent assembly. Successful work was carried on in several educational departments. Meddie Ovington Hamilton, of Kansas City, had charge of the literature and C. L. S. C. departments, devoting her attention to the study of American and English literary masterpieces. The C. L. S. C. enrollment for the year was sixty-nine.

THE OTTAWA CHAUTAUQUA, KANSAS.

President George E. Vincent of Chautauqua Institution, New York, gave the Recognition Day address at the Ottawa Chautauqua. He was later the guest of honor and chief speaker at the C. L. S. C. banquet. Eight readers were graduated. The enrollment for the coming year consists of seventy-two members. Round Tables were addressed by Judge C. A. Smart upon "Some Phases of English Government"; Dr. Lowell M. McAfee, on "Christian Education"; Prof. Arvin S. Olin, "Educational Ideals"; Dr. G. D. Porter, "Browning"; Prof. Murray G. Hill, "Shakespeare and the Conscience"; Miss Florence L. Snow in original verse; Mrs. C. N. Walker, "Memories of Stratford-on-Avon"; Mrs. May Belleville Brown, "Rudyard Kipling"; Miss Margaret L. Bruner, song program, "Literature in Song"; Meddie Ovington Hamilton, superintendent of the C. L. S. C.; Judge C. A. Smart, president; Mr. Henry Durst, secretary. Successful work was conducted in various departments.

WATHENA-ST. JOSEPH CHAUTAUQUA, WATHENA, KANSAS.

The ninth annual assembly of the Wathena Chautauqua was very successful. It is estimated that more than 30,000 persons passed through the gates during the nine days' session. The success of the Chautauqua is due to the fact that the management ran a true Chautauqua and engaged the best of talent.

The C. L. S. C. work was cared for by Mrs. Limerick, Winfield, Kansas, and Round Tables were held in the new C. L. S. C.

hall at 4 o'clock each afternoon. Besides the leader the following spoke at the Round Tables, W. J. Bryan, on the "Orient," Spillman Riggs on "Reading," and Dr. Bushnell on "The First Five Books of a Library." Impressive Recognition Day exercises were held. Dr. Troxell, President of Midland College, Atchison, Ks., delivered the Class address, after which the five graduates received their diplomas. The effect was to increase the interest in the C. L. S. C. and seventeen have already enrolled in the class of 1911. An Alumni Association consisting of eight members has been organized with the following officers: President, Mrs. Carter, Wathena, Ks.; Vice-president, Mrs. Lou Browne, St. Joseph, Mo.; Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Fanny Zimmerman, Moray, Kansas.

WATHENA CHAUTAUQUA, KANSAS.

The Wathena Chautauqua held a very successful Assembly. On Recognition Day six graduates passed through the Golden Gate. A large Alumni body was organized. A. W. Themanson, is secretary; Mrs. Alice Limerick of Winfield, Kansas, secretary of the C. L. S. C. department.

WINFIELD CHAUTAUQUA, WINFIELD, KANSAS.

The work of the C. L. S. C. at the Winfield Chautauqua was, as usual, in every way satisfactory. The Chautauqua extended over ten working days, and every day at four o'clock the regular session of the Round Table was held. There was no other meeting held at the park at this hour so that the C. L. S. C. has undisputed sway, and all the energies of the management and the C. L. S. C. people were given to making it successful.

The work this season was in charge of Miss Eleanore Hayes of Winfield. Among the persons who attended the Round Table were Dr. Conway of Omaha, Dr. Leon H. Vincent of Boston, Dr. George E. Vincent of Chautauqua, and Dr. Forbush of Detroit, besides many of the local managers of the C. L. S. C. work.

Recognition Day at Winfield is always the climax of the session. The address this year was given by Dr. George E. Vincent of Chautauqua, and a class of eight graduated. The graduating exercises were followed by the annual banquet at which three hundred Chautauquans participated. This is made one of the most enjoyable features of the session. The enrollment reached about fifty. It is hoped to have eighty readers in Winfield this season.

The department work of the Assembly this season was probably up to the standard of any session yet held. The Winfield management has come to think that a real Chautauqua means a group of summer schools with study hours, class work, and real educational development rather than a series of platform entertainments.

Plans are being made for the further development of departments for next season with the erection of an additional building, and general broadening of the plans of the association.

WYANDOT CHAUTAUQUA ASSOCIATION, FAIRMOUNT PARK, KANSAS CITY,
KANSAS.

A special C. L. S. C. Day was conducted by the Wyandot Chautauqua and daily Round Tables were conducted by Miss Alma Webster. The Vesper Services of Chautauqua Institution were followed with interest and the Recognition Day literature aroused considerable attention. Recognition Day itself had to be omitted because of very unfavorable weather conditions. The Round Tables were devoted to a survey of the four years C. L. S. C. course of reading and a strong general program admirably supplemented these discussions.

CLYFFESIDE CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY, ASHLAND, KY.

Daily C. L. S. C. Round Table sessions were conducted by the C. L. S. C. representative. The plan was followed of enlisting the various literary organizations of the surrounding territory to support the Round Table by securing from their members papers and discussions on topics relating to the C. L. S. C. course of reading. On Recognition Day, July 2, a large number of classes were represented in the procession. The address was delivered by Dr. Ora Samuel Gray of Amherst, Mass.

GROVE CHAUTAUQUA, WASHINGTON GROVE, MD.

During the sixth Chautauqua season of the Grove Chautauqua, six weekly Chautauqua Round Tables were held, all of which were well attended. The general theme for each meeting was the immigrant question, which was discussed under various important aspects. The leaders were W. H. H. Smith, Mrs. D. E. Wiler, and Assistant Commissioner-General of Immigration T. V. Powderly. The Recognition Day exercises of August 16 were successful despite the rain. There were five graduates: W. H. H. Smith, Alfred Wood, Mrs. Almeria S. Williamson, Mrs. Annie E. Bovee, Miss Emily C. Van Vleck. The address was made by Rev. George Bailey, Ph. D., his subject being "The Stewardship of Intellectual Stimulus." The usual graduation program was carefully followed.

LAUREL PARK ASSEMBLY, NORTHAMPTON, MASS.

Unusual interest in the educational features of the work characterized last summer's session of the Laurel Park Assembly. Seven Round Tables were held under the direction of Professor A. H. Evans, who has had charge of this work for several seasons. In his lectures Professor Evans touched upon the history of the past and upon future readings of the course as well as upon civic conditions, thus making his work directly useful to C. L. S. C. readers. Recognition Day was one of the most successful ever held at this Assembly, the procession containing more Chautauquans than upon any previous occasion. Five graduates and two others passed the Golden Gate. The Recognition Day address was given by Rev. Charles D. Melden, Ph. D., principal of Wilbraham Academy. A number of readers were enrolled for the C. L. S. C. course. The educational influence of the Assembly has grown markedly during the last few years.

CARTHAGE CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY, CARTHAGE, MISSOURI.

The C. L. S. C. work at the Carthage Chautauqua was conducted by members of the local club. Mr. Leon H. Vincent delivered a series of lectures upon literary subjects in place of the usual Round Tables and also gave the Recognition Day address. The Recognition Day services were conducted more impressively than ever before. There were seven graduates.. A new class of over thirty members was organized.

NORTH DAKOTA CHAUTAUQUA, DEVIL'S LAKE, N. D.

The Chautauqua idea was more thoroughly set forth at this Assembly than ever before in its history. There were daily meetings of the Round Table which were largely attended. Those in charge of the Round Tables were: Rev. Eben E. Saunders, and Miss Nellie S. Johnson. At these meetings discussions were held upon "Esperanto," "The Japanese Immigration Problem," "The Parent Chautauqua," "The Voice of the Poets," etc. Reviews of the American Year books were also a popular feature. The new Hall of Philosophy was sufficiently far advanced to be used as a place of meeting. On Recognition Day the full C. L. S. C. services were followed, the address being delivered by Rev. E. P. Robertson. Several certificates were granted. Several new members have been enrolled for the Class of 1911 and a considerable number are continuing the reading for the Classes of 1908 and 1910.

EPWORTH PARK ASSEMBLY, BETHESDA, OHIO.

The seventeenth annual session of Epworth Park Assembly, Bethesda, Ohio, was held July 31 to August 14. The program was good throughout. The work of the C. L. S. C. was in charge of P. U. Hawkins, Barnesville, O. Mr. Frank Chapin Bray, Editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, was the orator on Recognition Day, delivering an address on "Ready Made Thinking." His visit to the Assembly was greatly appreciated..

There were nine graduates this year, who passed through the "Gate" and the "Arches." The regular Recognition Day program was used, and was highly appreciated by the large audience. About twenty new members have been enrolled for the coming year. There is a deeper interest in C. L. S. C. work than in former years. The graduates have recently organized, and are planning for the future. Mrs. Anna Albert, Bethesda, Ohio, was elected president, and Miss Adda Knight, Sardis, Ohio was elected secretary and treasurer.

OREGON CITY, OREGON.

The fourteenth session of the Willamette Valley Chautauqua Assembly which meets annually at Gladstone Park near Portland was a success both financially and educationally. There were ten round table sessions, from eleven to twelve, in the morning in charge of Mrs. Eva Emery Dye.. The topics discussed were matters of general pressing interest in Oregon at the present time. One entire session was given to the interest of C. L. S. C. Recog-

Reports From Other Assemblies

nition Day was observed though not with an elaborate program. There was one graduate this year. There will be quite a large enrollment for the Class of 1911. The management desire to extend the interests of the C. L. S. C. movement throughout its section of the country and hope soon to employ a Secretary at an annual salary who will give much time to the organization of reading circles in the Willamette Valley and at nearby points.

THE PENNSYLVANIA CHAUTAUQUA, MOUNT GRETN, PA.

Beginning with July 6 daily Round Table sessions of the C. L. S. C. were held until Recognition Day, July 25. Many interesting talks were given followed by informal discussions. The subjects of most of the speakers related to the American Year of the C. L. S. C. work, those attracting the most attention being suggested by the books, "Races and Immigrants in America" and "Newer Ideals of Peace." The speakers were: Mr. Edward P. Elliott, Dr. William Spurgeon of London, Dr. Shimmell, Dr. Steel, Rev. S. Edwin Rupp, Dr. Henry R. Rose. A C. L. S. C. Rally was also held at which informal talks were given by Alumni and undergraduates. Vesper Services were held on Sunday. The Recognition Day was the most successful in the history of this Chautauqua. The speaker was Prof. L. E. McGinness A. M., his subject being, "Man, A Reading Animal." The graduating class numbered thirteen. The usual C. L. S. C. procession and exercises were carefully followed out. In the evening thirty alumni held a banquet. The registration of old and new members was larger than for some years and great interest in the C. L. S. C. work was aroused. As a result a number of new readers were enrolled and several new circles will be organized. W. J. Zuck of Annville, Pa., is superintendent of the C. L. S. C. department.

SIMPSON PARK CHAUTAUQUA, SOUTH DAKOTA.

The work at the Simpson Park Assembly was conducted by Mrs. E. E. Martin with a fair attendance and increasing interest in the work throughout the season. There were ten Round Tables, each led by prominent speakers, upon such topics as "The Chautauqua Idea" and "Our Attitude toward the Immigrant Problem." Recognition Day was observed with Professor Gault of South Dakota University, as the speaker of the day. There were three graduates. The services of the day were impressive. Plans are being made to enroll a large class for 1911.

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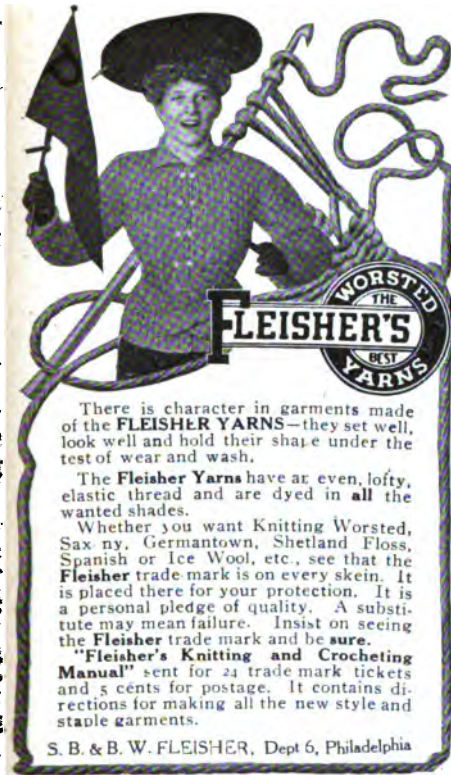
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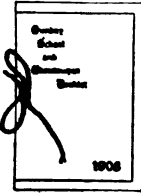
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